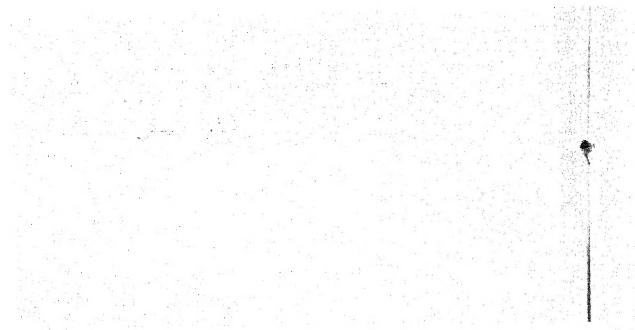


*ADMINISTRATIVE INNOVATIONS  
IN RAJASTHAN*





# ADMINISTRATIVE INNOVATIONS IN RAJASTHAN

*Edited by*  
MOHAN MUKERJI



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**Mohan Mukerji 1919**

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## Acknowledgments

THE present volume is an upshot of a project undertaken by the Rajasthan Regional Branch of the Indian Institute of Public Administration to mark the Silver Jubilee of the founding of IIPA.

Shri Mohan Mukerji, former Chief Secretary and Adviser to the Governor, Rajasthan, and presently the Chairman of the Programmes Committee of the Branch, deserves our most grateful thanks for having successfully accomplished the responsibility of editing this volume. His vast experience in governmental affairs and his most distinguished record as an imaginative innovator in bureaucracy helped provide a purpose and cohesiveness to the present volume.

The contributors to the volume were good enough to write empiric papers on different dimensions of administrative innovations in the Government of Rajasthan. We are profoundly thankful to them for their kind cooperation and support.

We are also grateful to Mr. K. N. Bhargava and Dr. J. C. K. kar for taking keen interest in the volume; to Mr. P. C. Mathur for reading the proofs with care; to Mrs. Sudha Saxena for preparing the index; to Mr. Virendra Mehta for typing the manuscript; and to the Government of Rajasthan for providing financial assistance for the publication of the volume.

Hopefully, this study will act as a precursor to similar attempts by other Regional Branches and a prelude to further innovations in public administrative systems at the State level.

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## Foreword

AS its name itself denotes, Rajasthan has been the land of *Rajas*, the rulers of princely States which the British had allowed to exist side by side with the Provinces directly administered by them. These princely States were of various sizes, ruled with various degrees of efficiency by one Maharana, some important Maharajas, a few Rajas and one Nawab, the descendant of a commander of mercenaries whom the East India Company found it more convenient to purchase than to destroy when comparative peace was brought to Rajasthan at the end of the Third Maratha War in 1818. After India had become independent in 1947, the 22 princely States of Rajasthan, by stages, merged ultimately into a single State on March 30, 1949. During the Reorganization of States in 1956, Ajmer, Sunel Tappa and Mount Abu areas were added to the State and Sironj was taken out.

The establishment of a unified administration for the new State, creating integrated services out of the employees of all the princely States, introducing uniform laws (in one well-known case, a high official, accused of accepting heavy bribes, had to be acquitted because the alleged offence had been committed before the formation of Rajasthan and according to the laws in that particular State acceptance of bribe by a public servant was not an offence at all !), placing all civil and Sessions courts under a single High Court, were all stupendous tasks, performed with reasonable efficiency. Major administrative measures were taken soon after formation of the State by abolishing *Jagirs*, some of which had been as large as a few of the princely States. Rajasthan did not start with a "clean slate". Out of patches of different hues and sizes a workable quilt was prepared which gave warmth and a feeling of oneness. This gave opportunities to include in Rajasthan's administration many features which did not exist in other States, not at least in exactly the same forms. [This volume seeks to place on record some of the innovative aspects of the administration of a State which has come to be recognized as one of the well-administered States of India. Since Agriculture, including Animal Husbandry, is the main source

of livelihood of the people, some of the innovations in development of agriculture constitute the subject-matter of the first series of articles. Innovations in some other aspects of developmental administration are described in the other articles that follow. The basic need of a good administration is good management of Personnel and so the innovations in this area find mention towards the end of this volume.

A few important features, which are not exactly innovative but have affected Rajasthan's administration, are worth mentioning. One is a much greater degree of informality and friendly relationship among senior and junior employees than what is reported to exist in most other States. Secondly, in spite of being the second largest State in area, the institution of Divisional Commissioners was abolished in 1963, thereby leading to a much closer contact between the District Collectors and the State Secretariat as well as the Heads of Departments. For overall supervision of programmes which involve a number of districts, there are Commissioners for Area Development with powers sufficient to effectively get work out of staff belonging to various departments—for Rajasthan Canal and Chambal areas being developed with World Bank aid, the Desert and the Tribal areas. But their authority extends only over the Project Areas and their powers relate only to development matters. Thirdly, as a natural corollary of the non-existence of Divisional Commissioners, care is taken to see that every officer of the Indian Administrative Service gains adequate experience as a District Collector during his service career. Lastly, Rajasthan since its formation had political stability and complete absence of parochialism to an extent which did not exist in any other State in India—and since the real credit for the past years of stability and non-parochial attitudes goes to the practical sense of the people of the State, it would be reasonable to expect that similar political stability will remain a feature of the administration of Rajasthan.

The Silver Jubilee of the Indian Institute of Public Administration deserved proper celebration by its various Branches. The Rajasthan Branch considered that the best tribute it could pay to the parent body was to bring out this volume on Administrative Innovations in Rajasthan. I am grateful to the authors of the various articles. Some of them have been, or continue to be, closely associated with the subject on which they have expressed their views or

narrated their experiences. My thanks are also due to Mr. K.N. Bhargava, former Director of the State Institute of Public Administration (SIPA), who also held the office of Honorary Secretary of the Rajasthan Branch of the IIPA; and to Dr. Ramesh K. Arora, Professor of Public Administration, University of Rajasthan, who is the Secretary of the Programmes Committee of the Branch, without whose active and continuous help this volume would not have been possible.

Jaipur

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January 26, 1982





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# Institutional Genesis of Panchayati Raj in Rajasthan

P.C. Mathur

R A J A S T H ' A N, renowned for its one thousand years of monocratic monarchical regimes of Rajput Princes,<sup>1</sup> took a "small step" towards institutionalization of people's democratic control over rural development with the inauguration of a three-tier structure of Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) on October 2, 1959. It is too early to say whether Rajasthan's bold institutional innovation would also prove a "giant step" for India as a whole, but even the worst critics of this administrative or, more accurately, politico-administrative innovation, would readily concede that it had opened a new chapter in the history of rural Rajasthan which had for long remained aloof from the mainstream of politico-economic development in India.<sup>2</sup>

Compared to the wealth of information available about political and administrative history of British India, the story of institutional innovations in the Indian States or princely States has been rather scantily documented. While the historians have yet to produce in-depth studies in this regard for princely India as a whole, the handful of academic studies with regard to the princely States of Rajasthan pertaining to the nineteenth and twentieth century clearly suggest that the political culture of these princely States lagged far behind British India as far as introduction of administrative reforms and representative government was concerned. The political regimes in the 22 major and minor princely States which, except for the tiny enclave of Ajmer-Marwara, constitute modern Rajasthan were characterized by extreme concentration of power and authority in the hands of the rulers and their small band of advisers most of whom were the ruler's kinsmen to begin with although later on the major administrative offices became the exclusive preserve of certain "service families" and, more recently, were even filled up by distinguished administrators recruited on an

"all-India" basis. The concentration of political power in the "Rajput polity" was matched by diffusion of economic authority with *Jagirdars* controlling the bulk of the major productive asset, viz., land and administering a variety of extractive revenue laws which (at least by the second quarter of the twentieth century) began to be perceived as "exploitative".<sup>3</sup>

The topographical and physionomic landscape of Rajasthan (most of which is covered by desert while a large part of the remaining non-arid zone is dotted by hills and forests) made agriculture a fruitless enterprise while Rajasthan's rich mineral resources lie, by and large, unexploited even till today in the absence of the necessary communications and technological facilities.<sup>4</sup> Even in terms of planned economic development which was ushered in with the establishment of the Planning Commission in 1950, the State of Rajasthan virtually "missed" a Plan inasmuch as its First Plan (1952-57) was merely a compendium of on-going departmental schemes and even its subsequent Plans were posterity-oriented and contained few high-yielding projects with a low gestation period.<sup>5</sup> During the early years, the administrative penetration of the newly-formed State of Rajasthan (and its governmental agencies) was rather minimal and the State was still grappling with problems of merger and integration of 22 different units with varying levels of politico-administrative development.<sup>6</sup> To add to the woes of the young State, "State Politico" in Rajasthan was characterized by instability and intense factionalism inside the ruling party which was only partially mitigated by the landslide victory achieved by the Indian National Congress in 1957 under the leadership of Mohan Lal Sukhadia.<sup>7</sup>

The conceptual roots of the modern three-tier PRIs which Rajasthan was the first State to establish on a State-wide basis can be traced to the proposal for "Democratic Decentralization" made by the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team which was appointed by the Committee on Plan Projects of the National Development Council on January 16, 1957, and which submitted its report on November 24, 1957. The innovative credit which the State of Rajasthan can claim with respect to Panchayati Raj is, therefore, mainly in terms of implementation but, as we have seen above, even such an implementational innovation is specially creditworthy in the context of its overall politico-administrative gaps and lags as compared to the other units of the Republic of India which had partaken of the



British-sponsored constitutional, administrative and economic development far more directly and fully than the princely States which merged to form Rajasthan.

The Balwantrai Mehta Study Team was, as noted above, appointed by the Committee on Plan Projects (COPP) of the National Development Council (NDC) which had been set up in 1951 to bring about inter-State and Centre-State coordination with reference to plans and programmes of economic development being prepared by the Planning Commission. Both the Planning Commission as well as the National Development Council had been established by the Government of India and none found an explicit mention in the Constitution. Therefore, even though the Team for the Study of Community Projects and National Extension Service (as the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team was formally designated) which was led by a veteran Congressman with a distinguished Gandhian halo, *viz.*, Balwantrai Mehta (who was at that time only a Member of Parliament), being merely an informal study team appointed by one of the several standing committees on the National Development Council, it could not enjoy the formal status of a high-power committee or commission appointed directly by the Government of India or appointed by the President under the Constitution of India. Besides the leader, Balwantrai Mehta, the Study Team contained 6 members most of whom had been associated only with State politics or State administration, although some of them were later destined to play a significant role in the all-India context. (Shankar Dayal Sharma, who was a member of this Study Team as a Minister from Madhya Pradesh being the most notable example.) The association of people with intimate knowledge of State-level politics and administration may, however, conceivably have been a "plus" factor in gaining the approval of the State-level politico-administrative elite for the recommendations of the Study Team. Incidentally, it may be noted that the Study Team contained two members, *viz.*, Balwantrai Mehta and Shankar Dayal Sharma who had built their (political) career in princely States while another member, *viz.*, B.G. Rao, had spent a long slice of his (administrative) career as Chief Secretary of States dominated by the ex-princely States, *viz.*, Rajasthan and the then Madhya Bharat.

While in the absence of access to relevant administrative records and personal memoirs it is difficult to state as to at what precise time the Rajasthan Government decided to implement such

an institutional innovation as Panchayati Raj. The Memoranda for Cabinet No. F-45/II/173/DD/Insp/ dated January 1, 1958, which was prepared by Balwantrai Mehta, who was the Development Commissioner and Additional Chief Secretary to the Government, clearly states that "The State Government had given its general approval to the proposal of democratic decentralization when the members of the Team met the representatives of the State in September 1957."

Relying upon the veracity of the foregoing statement, it can be inferred that the Government of Rajasthan had given an enthusiastic reception to the idea of democratic decentralization even while such administratively reputed States as Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu were cool towards it and Rajasthan's adjoining States like Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh did not evince any interest whatsoever even after its report was published and met with personal approval of no less a person than Jawaharlal Nehru, free India's first Prime Minister, and, besides Mahatma Gandhi, the foremost leader of India's "Freedom Struggle" against the British *Raj*.

Regarding events between November 1957 and January 3, 1958, with regard to the decision-making process which led to the Rajasthan Government's implementational innovation in the sphere of Panchayati Raj we do not have much information in hand, but S.K. Dey, the then Union Minister for Community Development and National Extension Service, who enthusiastically piloted the Balwant Rai Mehta Study Team's reports, has revealed that the Study Team's report was discussed threadbare at a special camp organized at Patancharu in Andhra Pradesh which was attended by 25 MPs and an equal number of Andhra Pradesh MLAs and inaugurated by N. Sanjiva Reddy, the then Chief Minister of Andhra Pradesh, who strongly urged its acceptance.<sup>8</sup> This made it virtually certain that Andhra Pradesh would be the first to take up the institutionalization of Panchayati Raj and, indeed, the Chief Minister of Andhra Pradesh followed up his statement at the Patancharu camp by submitting a White Paper on "Reorganization of Local Administration in Andhra Pradesh" to the legislature containing detailed provisions for establishment of PRIs in Andhra Pradesh.

Among the participants at the Patancharu camp were two MPs from Rajasthan, *viz.*, Harishchandra Mathur and Mathura Das Mathur. S.K. Dey has revealed, in informal talks, that these two MPs were highly impressed by the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team's proposals and rushed to Jaipur (the capital of Rajasthan)

and tried to convince Mohan Lal Sukhadia, the then Chief Minister of Rajasthan, not only about the utility of the idea of "democratic decentralization" but also the need for urgency in its implementation so that Rajasthan may take a lead in this regard. From the available administrative records, it certainly does appear that Sukhadia accepted their advice and set about the job of institutional diffusion of Panchayati Raj with alacrity and admirable boldness.

Thus, the Cabinet Memorandum of January 3, 1958, referred to above, was discussed by the Cabinet on January 7, 1958, wherein the Government decided upon the "general policy" regarding implementation of the recommendation of the Balwantraji Mehta Study Team and appointed a committee consisting of seven officers with Shyam Lal, Member, Board of Revenue, as Chairman and K.L. Baraya, Director (Training), Development Department, as Secretary vide its resolution No. 9, dated January 7, 1958.<sup>9</sup> The Government notification concerning the appointment of this Officers' Committee was issued by the Additional Chief Secretary on January 15, 1958, and it was directed to submit its report to the Government in the Planning and Development Department before January 25, 1958. Taking into account the fact that two members of this committee were headquartered at Ajmer and five at Jaipur and at least one (being Collector and District Magistrate, Ajmer) was burdened with "line" responsibilities, constituting the committee on January 15, 1958, and directing it to submit its report before January 25, 1958, *i.e.*, barely giving it, effectively speaking, one week, in which to ponder upon its "terms of reference" not only bespoke of the urgency which the Rajasthan Government attached to the implementation of the Study Team's proposals but also betokens the considerable "staff" work that must already have been done before the Council of Ministers formally appointed the Committee of Officers to work out the modalities of the implementation of the Study Team's proposals regarding "Democratic Decentralization."

The basic thrust of the Balwantraji Mehta Study Team's proposals can be summed up very briefly: to impart self-sustaining political dynamism to an administrative innovation which had already been diffused throughout most of the rural India in the form of Community Development Projects and National Extension Service which had begun with a modest start on October 2, 1952.

The Planning Commission in the First Five Year Plan itself described Community Development as the "method through which

the First Five Year Plan seeks to initiate a process of transformation of the social and economic life of the villages" and by 1956-57 a large number of Indian villages had been covered by the Community Development Programmes which envisaged that all the nearly half a million villages of India should be covered by nearly 5,500 new units of development administration with a new staffing pattern; the new unit was designated as the Community Development Block and the new staffing pattern was designated as the National Extension Service.

After a series of trials and experiments, the Government of India had adopted the broad principle that each Community Development Block was to cover about 100 villages and a population of 60,000 to 80,000 and each such block was to be staffed by a team of Extension Officers (EOs) who were to be subject matter specialists in such fields as agriculture, animal husbandry, social education, etc., working under the control and supervision of a "generalist" Block Development Officer (BDO); each such block was to be provided with a "schematic" budget which provided a uniform amount of plan funds for both establishment and administrative overheads as well as developmental outlays in such fields as agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperation, etc.

Since the Union Government was forthcoming with Plan assistance to the tune of 75 per cent of non-recurring expenditure and 50 per cent of recurring expenditure plus loans, all the State Governments in India evinced great keenness in establishment of Community Development Blocks. Out of the total outlay on a typical C.D. block with a schematic budget of Rs. 1.20 million (Rs. 12 lakhs) the State's share came to only Rs. 2,64,000 (22 per cent) with the Union Government bearing nearly 80 per cent of the total outlay over a period of five years. In Rajasthan, according to the Cabinet memorandum of January 3, 1958, as many as 51 blocks were taken up in the First Plan while in the Second Plan it was proposed to establish 99 more such blocks involving a total outlay of Rs. 100.85 million; taking into account an estimated Second Plan expenditure of Rs. 9.18 million on the second phase of the First Plan the above-mentioned document estimated the total net Second Plan outlay on this account to be of the order of Rs. 99.09 million.

The Balwantrai Mehta Study Team was thus chartered to carry out an assessment of an on-going Plan project, *viz.*, the Community Development Programme under which every State Government had

already established new units of development administration which were territorially as well as functionally different from such well-established units of revenue and regulatory administration as the district, the taluka or the tehsil.

The gradual diffusion of the Community Development blocks in rural areas was, thus, a major administrative innovation which was being gradually institutionalized in rural India at the time of the COPP of the NDC commissioned the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team to study and report on the working of CD and NES but had the NDC not subsequently remitted one more term of reference to it (in addition to the "terms of reference" fixed in the original appointment order), *viz.*, "the question of reorganization of the structure of district administration so as to adapt it to the needs of democratic planning", one wonders as to whether, given the original terms of reference, the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team would not have prepared one more routine "economy and efficiency" report.

The NDC directive to the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team to carry out a special investigation into reorganization of the district administration certainly changed its focus from a purely administrative evaluation of the CD and NES into a broader inquiry into the question of democratization of administration which had been already decentralized at the block level. The Second Five Year Plan had, in fact, already recommended that "village panchayats should be organically linked with popular organizations at a higher level and that by stages determined in advance, democratic bodies should take over the entire general administration and development of the district or the subdivision perhaps other than such functions as law and order, administration of justice and certain other functions pertaining to the revenue administration."

The Second Five Year Plan had, thus, prepared the ground for: (a) organic linkage of village panchayats with popular organizations at a higher level and (b) devolution of all functions of development administration on the democratic bodies at the district and subdivision levels and putting these two imperatives together the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team came up with its now-famous proposal for "democratic decentralization of district administration." The Study Team's proposals had, in fact, been discussed by the members of the Team with the State Ministers of Local Self-Government at the meeting of the Central Council of Local Self-Government held at Srinagar in September 1957, and, as part of the

instructions received by the Team, the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team has ascertained the views of the State Governments on the various recommendations by it and had secured "substantial agreement" on most of them even before formally submitting its report.

The essence of the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team's proposal for "democratic decentralization" lay, therefore, in recommending the establishment of "an elected self-governing institution whose jurisdiction would be coextensive with a development block" and suggesting that such panchayat samitis should be "constituted by indirect elections from the village panchayat." While prescribing the territorial jurisdiction of the panchayat samiti, the Study Team considered several alternatives (*viz.*, the village, the tehsil and the subdivision) but made a choice in favour of the block because, in its opinion, the block "offers an area large enough for functions which the village panchayat cannot perform and yet small enough to attract the interest and service of the resident," but there is no doubt that the additional institutional and operational advantages the block offered (*viz.*, "some of the blocks are already functioning as the developmental units and have been equipped for this purpose with adequate personnel in different fields") must have weighed heavily with the Study Team in making up its mind in this regard. The Study Team, in fact, explicitly stated: "The intention . . . is to devolve power and responsibility on to a local body for the purpose of carrying out developmental activities in rural areas for which purpose the block has been specially brought into being" and added, "The Block Advisory Committee will be replaced by a statutorily powerful instrument of the local people's will, which can ensure that the expenditure of resources upon local works conforms with the wishes and needs of the locality."

Having specified the democratic parameter of its proposal in terms of its image of the panchayat samiti as a "a single representative and vigorous democratic institution . . . statutory, elective, comprehensive in its duties and functions equipped with necessary executive machinery and in possession of adequate resources," the Study Team turned its attention towards the decentralization parameter by stating "The urgency for decentralization is the greatest in the fields of development" and adding that "it is here that we consider that the panchayat samiti should begin to operate with the least possible delay." From this and from other observations of the Study Team, it is, thus, clear that it envisaged the scope of decentralization to be co-terminous with development; the term "development

work", the Study Team itself understood as covering agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperation, minor irrigation works, village industries, primary education, local communications, sanitation, health and medical relief, local amenities and similar subjects. A mere glance at this list is sufficient to show that it is virtually a reproduct of the functions already being performed by the block-level extension functionaries under the CD Schematic Budget and even the itemized list of panchayat samiti functions which the Study Team gave elsewhere leaves one in no doubt that it was equating "development" with "Community Development Programme" and the functional jurisdiction of the proposed Panchayat Samitis was to be built around the functions already being discharged by them under the CD budget. To be sure, the Study Team did envisage, in the long run, additional entrustment of certain non-CD functions to the proposed block-level democratic institutions, but it made its time-priorities clear by stating: "We feel, however, that the immediate objective is to ensure that the development of the countryside is carried out as rapidly and efficiently as possible and through democratic process" and added that "only after the Governments are satisfied that these bodies are functioning as efficient democratic institutions, should they consider the transference to them of some or all of these extra duties and responsibilities together with the appropriate financial resources."

The Rajasthan Government's urgency to implement the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team's far-reaching and innovative proposals was all the more commendable in view of the administrative under-development of the State.<sup>10</sup> As already indicated, Rajasthan had inherited virtually 22 separate administrative systems at varying levels of under-development specially in so far as the field of district administration was concerned. Under the stabilizing impact of treaty relations with the British Crown, some administrative reforms had certainly taken place in these princely States but whatever be the calibre of the princes' Prime Ministers, Advisory Councils and other high-ranking members of embryonic *Darbar*-level Secretariat, the inter-position of *Jagirdars* between the rulers and the rural people meant that the latter continued to eke out a bare subsistence under the yoke of medievalistic politico-administrative regimes which were staunchly determined to resist any interference or innovative directives from the princes and their advisers. A variety of traditional panchayats did flourish at the village level but these exercised only

customary authority which was being fast eroded and, in any case, seldom extended to the management of developmental enterprises.

Above the villages, most of which fell under the *Jagirdari* system, there was, thus, virtually no systematic administrative supervision of the court-based administrators. The revenue hierarchy (starting from *Lambardar* and *Patwari*, ascending through several levels including *Qanungo*, *Tehsildar* and the District Officer and reaching to the Chief Secretary and Revenue Board) familiar in British India was, more or less, unknown in Rajasthan till the dawn of the twentieth century. In some of the administratively developed princely States, the offices of the *Patwari* and *Tehsildar* had become institutionalized during the twenties and thirties but the office of the District Officer or Collector was yet in the embryonic stages in most cases on the eve of 1947 and it was only in 1950 that the newly-formed State of Rajasthan was able to fully institutionalize this vital element of district administration.<sup>11</sup> This was, in a sense, a bonus as far as Panchayati Raj is concerned because the senior and middle-level bureaucrats in Rajasthan, not being fully conversant with the traditions of power and glory attached with the office of the Collector, did not put up a resistance to the conferment of decision-making authority upon the people's elected representatives. However, the absence of strong district-level administrative traditions also meant that the PRIs in Rajasthan were denied the benefits of a stable and well-oiled administrative machinery at the district and village levels while the block-level administrative apparatus was as yet in the process of being institutionalized.

Again, despite the enactment of the relevant legislation in some princely States, the village panchayats were in an anaemic stage when the State of Rajasthan finally came into being in 1950.<sup>12</sup> According to available information at least seven princely States had enforced Panchayat Acts prior to 1947,<sup>13</sup> but in none of these princely States were the village panchayats functioning as vigorous institutions of local self-development, let alone the question of their undertaking systematic plans for agricultural modernization and other aspects of rural development. The State of Rajasthan did make an institutional breakthrough in this regard in 1953 when the Rajasthan Panchayat Act was enforced providing a large measure of uniformity in the structures and procedures of village panchayats throughout the entire State. The 1953 enactment could not, however, provide the requisite degree of administrative vitality to the



village panchayats which continued to suffer from scarcity of funds and lack of technical guidance for the formulation and implementation of local-level developmental projects. These village panchayats institutionalized in 1953 did not even conform to the democratic norms of "secret ballot" inasmuch as elections to these institutions were held in the open by raising of hands and were conducted by the *Tehsildars* or other revenue-oriented officers. Areawise, these village panchayats suffered from the defect of covering a very large population and a number of villages making it very difficult for people residing in non-headquarters villages to participate in the panchayat activities.<sup>14</sup> The Rajasthan Panchayat Act, 1953, had also provided for the formation of Tehsil Panchayats and District Boards but by 1957-58 these institutions had not attained the requisite dynamism to provide a viable alternative to the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team's proposals for block-level panchayat samitis and district-level zila parishads.

With the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team having shown the "way" and the Rajasthan Cabinet having shown its "will" to march ahead on it despite daunting politico-economic and politico-administrative handicaps, the process of decision-making with regard to institutionalization of "democratic decentralization" began to unfold itself after the Rajasthan Government appointed the aforementioned Officers' Committee (headed by Shyam Lal) to work out the details in the light of the decisions taken at its meeting on January 7, 1958. The terms of reference of this committee were:

- (1) To determine the size of judicial panchayats.
- (2) To suggest functions, resources and machinery for supervision of: (a) panchayats, (b) panchayat samitis, and (c) zila parishads.
- (3) To define the role of the Commissioner, Collector, and Chief Executive Officer (BDO) *vis-a-vis* the panchayat, panchayat samiti and zila parishad.
- (4) To define relationships of the block officials with the officers of other development departments and local bodies.
- (5) To recommend a phased programme for implementation of the three-tier scheme of local administration by constituting panchayat samitis and zila parishads.
- (6) To recommend to the State Government steps that will be necessary for bringing about administrative integration of local bodies at village, block and district levels with the government departments.

(7) Other important matters considered necessary by the committee for implementation of the recommendations of the Study Team.

The administrative history of the decision-making process with regard to the implementation of the three-tier structure of PRIs in Rajasthan subsequent to the appointment of the Shyam Lal Committee has been already chronicled by C.P. Bhambhri and for the present purposes, we would be content by giving a step-wise summary:<sup>15</sup>

(1) On January 21-22, 1958, the Shyam Lal Committee met and submitted an interim report focussed on item No. 5 of its terms of reference.

(2) The interim report of the Shyam Lal Committee was considered by the Cabinet and it decided to extend the lime-limit of this Committee up to December 15, 1958, after taking a few basic decisions and remitting some additional items for the Committee's examination.

(3) On June 6, 1958, the Committee decided to send a questionnaire to officials and non-officials; the questionnaire was issued on June 18, 1958.

(4) On October 10, 1958, the Committee met to consider the replies to the questionnaire.

(5) On November 5, 1958, the Committee met again to consider the replies to the questionnaire.

(6) On January 1, 1959, the Committee submitted its second interim report having already sought (and got) extension of time up to the middle of January 1959.

(7) The Cabinet considered the second interim report; issued a order-in-council regarding its modified acceptance of the Committee's recommendations; decided that the scheme of democratic democratization should be implemented at all levels by October 2, 1959.

(8) On February 7, 1959, the Government directed the Committee to submit a draft bill by the end of March 1959 and appointed a small drafting Committee of three officers for this purpose which held several meetings and prepared a draft bill.

(9) On April 6, 1959, K.L. Baraya submitted a draft bill to the Law Department in compliance with the Government order No. F/DD/39/Coord/2836-44 dated February 7, 1959.

The administrative process of working out the modalities of giving a statutory status to the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team's

proposals was, thus, spread over 15 months during which the top-level administrative officers as well as the political elite were constantly seized of the problems of institutionalization of democratic decentralization. In a way, the politico-administrative decision-making process in this context went beyond April 1959, as the Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads Bill, 1959, was subjected to detailed scrutiny in the Rajasthan Vidhan Sabha and non-officials of various political views examined it at various forums from their own point of view before the Rajasthan Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads Act, 1959 (PPSZPA), emerged out of the legislature and received the Governor's assent and the three-tier structure of PRIs was inaugurated by Jawaharlal Nehru on October 2, 1959. In the absence of the concrete details, we are, however, concentrating in this paper more on the administrative aspects of institutionalization of Panchayati Raj and a detailed analysis of the relevant legislative records, newspapers and other materials would take us much beyond the scope of administrative institutionalization of democratic decentralization.

We would, however, not like to conclude without giving our readers a flavour of the crucial issues which cropped up in the process of decision-making with regard to institutionalization of the three-tier PR structure in Rajasthan. Some of these issues were purely implementational in the sense that the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team's proposals were couched in such general terms that a State Government had no choice but to work out its own modalities to fill up the gaps in the Study Team's proposals; others were more innovational in the sense that the Government of Rajasthan decided to go beyond the Study Team's proposals and adopt administrative innovations which strengthened the thrust of the Study Team's proposals and ensured their institutionalization in a more meaningful manner and providing both institutional stability and functional dynamism to PRIs in Rajasthan which the PRIs did not attain in any other State.

It is true that the PR systems of Maharashtra and Gujarat have received much more acclaim for their performance not only from administrators but even from academic analysts, but the point that deserves to be noted in the comparative context is that the element of innovation was minimal in both these cases with the district-level zila parishads being, administratively speaking, not much more than administrative substitutes for the decades-old District Boards with an excellent record of local self-government administration while institutionalization of the block-level panchayat samiti

in Rajasthan was truly a case of administrative innovation requiring inculcation of a whole new set-up of structures and procedures to which neither the people nor the politico-administrative elite of Rajasthan had been accustomed.

The Rajasthan Government having decided to go in for a three-tier structure, the first decisional issue which arose related to the scope of implementation of the scheme of democratic decentralization; indications available from the Andhra Pradesh Government suggested that they were going in for a selective implementation in a few districts only and the Cabinet Memorandum prepared by the Panchayat and Development Department of the Rajasthan Government on January 3, 1958, had also suggested that this "experiment" may be tried, in the first instance, in five districts, one in each division, justification for this elective implementation being that only those districts should be selected which are fully covered under the CD Programme. As already mentioned, the process of establishment of the CD "Blocks" had begun only in 1952-53 and by 1955-58 only 51 blocks had been taken up in the First Plan and not more than 150 out of the total 232 blocks in Rajasthan were likely to be covered by the Second Plan, *i.e.*, up to 1961-62. The Officers' Committee in its first interim report, however, vetoed the idea of introducing PRIs as an experimental measure in five districts only stating that "superficially it may appear to be attractive but on a deeper examination it has been found to be untenable."

The Officers' Committee took note of the Cabinet decision that the district-level PR institutions, *i.e.*, zila parishads must be formed throughout the State simultaneously and there was no need to start with zila parishads in a few districts and extended it to the other two tiers stating that "one of the surest ways to ensure proper working of this scheme is to present a clear and foolproof picture of the system itself and uniformity in pattern throughout that State is an indispensable feature of this aspect."

With regard to the village panchayats the Officer's Committee argued that, in order to be effective, the new institutions would have to be put on a statutory basis and it would not be possible to have some institutions amenable to the old law and others being governed by the new which would lead to much confusion in the public mind and thus hamper the growth of healthy tradition in the working of the new institutions. The Committee, in effect, argued that even if five districts are selected for the experiment, the functions and

powers of the village panchayats would have to be defined by a new legislation and recommended that the new act should be made applicable to all the village panchayats since this would ensure uniformity in the imposition of taxation and "otherwise such anomalies would arise as may abuse the public mind." A similar logic was extended to the intermediary democratic institution, *viz.*, the panchayat samiti, and the Committee argued that in case it was decided to have panchayat samitis in only a few districts, other districts would have block advisory committees for the blocks and tehsil panchayats for areas not covered by the block. The Committee added that according to the prevailing practice the block advisory committees comprised the sarpanchas of the constituent panchayats and since the panchayat samitis were also to comprise sarpanchas of the constituent panchayats under the new law giving rise to a situation in which the difference between the districts where the new experiment is implemented and where it is not implemented would only be marginal because both would, in any case, be having statutory PRIs at the village and district levels and virtually the same body at the block level except for the fact that in some cases it would be statutory while in others it would be previously-existing non-statutory block advisory committees whose composition was nearly identical with that of the newly proposed panchayat samitis. The non-establishment of panchayat samitis throughout the State, the Officers' Committee further argued, would not be conducive to creating circumstances for the success of the other two tiers at the village and district levels. The decision to start with an experiment in a few districts would, the Committee further pointed out, entail continuance of legislation which would cover such areas where the intermediary body would not be given statutory powers adding that, "That too may not be desirable."

The Officers' Committee, therefore, concluded with a clear-cut recommendation in favour of establishment of statutory democratic institutions at the village, block and district levels simultaneously, and, in the process, evolved the innovative concept of the Shadow (or pre-extension) Block which would not have the funds provided under CD budget but where the panchayat samitis would, nevertheless, still have funds made available by the various departments such as the funds of the Local Development Works, Rural Water Supply, Grow More Food and Industries Department etc., and the experience of utilizing these funds, the Committee added,

would "... also prepare those areas for intensive work by arousing public enthusiasm and imagination when the blocks are allotted." In the available literature on Community Development and Panchayati Raj in India, Rajasthan's innovation of the 'shadow block' has not received much attention but there is no doubt that the State's determination to introduce PRIs on a State-wide basis would have come to nought had the Rajasthan Government not accepted its senior administrator's suggestion that democratic statutory bodies should also be established in those areas which have not yet been covered by the Community Development Programmes at a time when a large proportion of rural Rajasthan had not been covered by CD Blocks; and had Rajasthan faltered, the entire PR movement might have come to a standstill.

Another administrative innovation for which Rajasthan can claim legitimate pride is the posting of the officers belonging to the Rajasthan Administrative Service (RAS) as the Chief Executive Officers of the block-level panchayat samitis. The Balwantrai Mehta Study Team, it is true, had recommended that the services of experienced officers should be made available to the PRIs, but Rajasthan's decision (which was incorporated in the Cabinet Memorandum of January 3, 1958, itself) to post RAS Officers as BDO-cum-CEO of the panchayat samitis represented a great administrative breakthrough in the annals of the Indian administration inasmuch as never before had such high-ranking officers been required to operate so near the grass-roots. The positive dividends of this historic implementational innovation were clearly visible during 1959-69 when the status and prestige of the RAS-BDOs not only enabled the panchayat samitis to be institutionalized smoothly but also imparted considerable functional dynamism to the PRIs as a whole; which began to decline and languish when, after a few years, the Rajasthan Government ceased to make available the service of RAS Officers as BDOs.

Rajasthan notched up another implementational innovation with regard to the Study Team's proposals when the January 1958 Cabinet Memorandum stipulated that panchayat samitis should function through sub-committees and RPSZPA made appropriate provisions for the same because the Study Team's Report was totally silent on this issue.

Rajasthan, however, was not only the first State to implement the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team's proposals; its political and

administrative elite took several steps which went beyond the suggestions contained in the report of the Study Team and proved to be vital for the smooth institutionalization of the PR system in Rajasthan. Among several such steps one might mention the establishment of a Rajasthan Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads Services Selection Commission to handle the personnel functions with regard to the PRIs. It is true that the entire idea of "democratic decentralization" began to flounder in the web of administrative complication arising on account of the disparities in the service conditions of the PR personnel and other government employees, but there is no doubt that the establishment of a Public Service Commission-type Selection Commission for the PRIs was a right step taken at the right time and had it been allowed to develop along the intended lines (*viz.* as a full-fledged independent Commission for recruitment of all or a majority of the posts under PRIs) much of the administrative deceleration which the PRIs in Rajasthan faced later could have been checked in the beginning.

The Rajasthan Government went beyond the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team's proposals when the politico-administrative elite of the State left no stone unturned to super-charge the formal three-tier structure of PRIs with people's participation by laying a very great emphasis on *Gram Sabha* (*i.e.* meeting of all the adult residents of a panchayat) as the basic fundamental unit of the PR system. It is true that the *Gram Sabha* was not placed on a statutory footing in Rajasthan, but the fact that *Gram Sabha* found only an indirect reference in the rules made under the Rajasthan Panchayat Act, 1953, did not prevent the Rajasthan Government from launching upon a sustained campaign to make the village panchayats at least informally accountable to periodic meetings of all the residents at which block and even district level officials were also present.<sup>16</sup> The importance attached by the top political leaders and key administrators to the *Gram Sabha in Rajasthan* not only turned up the PRIs into exemplary institutions of participatory democracy but also drew attention of the decision-making elite at Union and State levels towards this vital organ of grass-roots democracy about which the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team had been totally silent.

Another administrative innovation in the context of PRIs in Rajasthan relates to the State Government's efforts to involve the PRIs in the process of "Planning from Below" not only in terms of

local plans but also in the context of the formulation of the State Five Year Plans. The first such attempt was made in Rajasthan within two years of the establishment of the PRIs at the time of the preparation of the Third Five Year Plan but a comprehensive scheme in this regard could be worked out only on the occasion of the formulation of Rajasthan's Fourth Five Year Plan in 1965-66.<sup>17</sup> From the available evidence regarding the contribution made by the various PRIs on this occasion, it can be safely asserted that had this innovation in economic planning been followed up with sincerity, not only the local democracy but also national economic planning would have been enriched in a sense not envisaged even by the Dantewala Committee on Block Level Planning in 1978 let alone the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team which laboured at a time when the techniques of "Multi-level planning" were hardly given any importance in the corridors of the *Tojna Bhawan*.

Finally, a mention might be made of the Rajasthan Government's bold decision to make the District Collector an *ex-officio* member of the district level zila parishads, thereby explicitly reversing the Balwantrai Mehta Study Team's equally explicit recommendation that the Collector should be the Chairman of the Zila Parishad. The Study Team's proposal had, in fact, already received the endorsement of the Andhra Pradesh Government and the Officers' Committee appointed by the Rajasthan Government had (for wholly understandable reasons) gone along with the idea of making the Collector the Chairman of the Zila Parishad, but the Rajasthan Cabinet decided to do away with this piece of politico-administrative incongruity from the democratic edifice of Panchayati Raj and the results, at least in the first ten years or so, were rather satisfactory; the District Collectors in most cases were able to evolve smooth working relations with the Zila Parishad *Pramukhs* and many of them evinced a keen interest in the working of PRIs at all levels without exercising any sort of administrative overlordship over the newly-formed elective institution most of whose members had never before been associated with decision-making deliberations regarding developmental allocations.

This paper being devoted to tracing the politico-administrative genesis of PRIs in Rajasthan, it would not be desirable to burden it with a detailed examination of its performance, but it may, however, be relevant to record that the "basic structure" of Panchayati Raj has remained stable over the last two decades even though its functional dynamism has recorded a significant fall specially after the



first decade during which not only the State Government and its political and administrative functionaries took a keen interest in it but its batteries were recharged by holding two elections in 1960-61 and 1964-65. Thereafter, PRIs in Rajasthan began to experience a gradual decline and led a high-power committee on Panchayati Raj Institutions to recommend, in 1973, that the Zila Parishad should be strengthened by devolving upon it additional powers, resources and personnel on the Maharashtra model but this Committee's report was not taken up seriously by the State Cabinet at any stage and its recommendations were never subjected to a detailed scrutiny. The declaration of 'Internal Emergency' in June 1975 further shifted the people's mind away from devolution of power and the elections to PRIs were repeatedly postponed.

The tenure of the PR non-officials elected in 1964-65, however, came to an end in February 1978 when the first-ever non-Congress Government which came to power in the June 1977 Vidhan Sabha elections decided to hold elections to the village panchayats even though the entire issue of restructuring and revitalizing PRIs was being considered by the Committee on Panchayati Raj Institutions appointed by the Government of India in December 1977. The report of the CPRI, headed by Asoka Mehta, became available in August 1978,<sup>18</sup> and although the Janata Party in Rajasthan made an earnest effort to consider its proposals at the party level as well as in the Rajasthan Vidhan Sabha, no concrete steps could be taken and PRIs in Rajasthan have entered the eighties without any substantive changes but with substantial erosion of their original momentum.

## Notes and References

1. For a brief overview of the one-thousand-year-long history of "Rajput Polity" in Rajasthan from the perspective of contemporary State politics see, P.C. Mathur, "Role of Princes in Rajasthan Politics" in Iqbal Narain (ed), *State Politics in India* (Meerut: Meenakshi Publishing House, 1967), pp. 596-607.
2. For overall evaluation of the PR System in Rajasthan see (1) P.C. Mathur, "Performance of the Panchayati Raj Institutions in Rajasthan 1959-1974: A Critical Survey", *Social Change*, September-December 1977, pp. 16-30; (2) P.C. Mathur, "Grass-roots Democracy: Report from Rajasthan", *Seminar*, No. 234, February 1979, pp. 16-20; and (3) M. V. Mathur, *et. al.*, *Panchayati Raj in Rajasthan* (New Delhi: Impex, 1967).
3. Systematic studies of the *Jagirdari* economic administration are, as yet, not available but for a brief account see: Government of India, *Report of the Rajasthan-Madhya Bharat Jagir Enquiry Committee* (New Delhi, 1950). For details of agrarian unrest and political movements, see K.S. Saxena, *Political Awakening in Rajasthan* (New Delhi: S. Chand & Co., 1972).
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6. For details see, Mohan Lal Sukhadia, *Our Administrative Problems* (Jaipur, 1963).
7. For details refer: Richard Sisson, *The Congress Party in Rajasthan* (California: California University Press, 1972).
8. Cf. S.K. Dey, "Power to the People", *Kurukshetra*, Vol. 28, No. 1, October 1, 1979.
9. The composition of the Officers' Committee was as follows: Shyam Lal, I.A.S., Member, Board of Revenue; G.S. Mehta, I.A.S., Commissioner, Ajmer Division; G.S. Purohit, I.A.S.,

- Finance Secretary, Z.S. Jhala, I.A.S. Secretary L.S.G. and P.W. Departments; Khem Chand, I.A.S., Collector, Ajmer District, A.P. Dewan, I.A.S. Deputy Development Commissioner, and K.L. Baraya, R.A.S., Director of Training.
10. For details see: Ziauddin Khan *et. al.* (eds.) *State Administration in Rajasthan* (Jaipur: Asha Publishing House, 1970).
  11. Cf. T.N. Chaturvedi, "Changing Role of the District Officer in Rajasthan", *Political Science Review*, Vol. 1, No. 2, October 1962, pp. 25-46.
  12. For a detailed case study of one village panchayat in the princely State of Jaipur see: Ravindra Sharma, *Village Panchayats in Rajasthan* (Jaipur: Alekh Publishers, 1973).
  13. Statutory village panchayats had seven princely States as follows:
 

No.	Princely State	Title of Legislation	Year
1.	Iikaner	Gram Panchayat Act	1928
2.	Jodhpur	Gram Panchayat Act	1945
3.	Bharatpur	Village Panchayat Act	1944
4.	Jaipur	Village Panchayat Act	1944
5.	Sirohi	Village Panchayat Act	1947
6.	Udaipur	Gram Panchayat Act	1940
7.	Karauli	Village Panchayat Act	1939
  14. For details refer: Ravindra Sharma, n. 12.
  15. *Vide* C. P. Bhambhri, "Establishment of Zila Parishads in Rajasthan: A Case Study", *Political Science Review*, Vol. 5, No. 2, October 1966: pp. 292-303.
  16. For a detailed case study see: P.C. Mathur, "Prerequisites and Requisites of Gram Sabha Activization: Field Notes of a Gram Sabha Meeting (April 26, 1962) at Baroli (Bundi District, Rajasthan)," *Prashashnika*, Vol. 1, No. 2, April-June 1972: pp. 12-24.
  17. For details see: P.C. Mathur, "Multi-Level Planning in Rajasthan," *Voluntary Action*, Vol. 8, No. 4, 1966: pp. 23-32.
  18. For a detail of the approach and recommendations of the Asoka Mehta Committee see: P.C. Mathur "Development Reorientation of Panchayati Raj Institutions," *Journal of Administration Overseas*.

## 2

# Reorganization of Agricultural Extension Machinery in India Through T & V System

R.C. Sood

AGRICULTURAL strategy of the country has the principal aim of maximizing agricultural production in order to meet in full the country's foodgrain requirements and to provide a strong agricultural base for the growing national economy. There are no two opinions that effective agricultural extension is essential for increasing agricultural production.

A variety of approaches, including National Extension Service (NES), Intensive Agricultural District Programme (IADP) and Special Schemes for intensive development of various crops, have been adopted from time to time for making agricultural extension in the country effective and these have helped to bring about a "Green Revolution" in the country. Steps required for strengthening agricultural extension administration in the States further have been examined at length at various forums including the National Commission on Agriculture and the need for gearing up agricultural extension administration all along the line has been recognized.

In this context an effective approach for agricultural extension known as the "Training and Visit" system has been evolved on the basis of experience gained in Chambal and Rajasthan Canal areas in Rajasthan, Chambal area in Madhya Pradesh and command areas in Andhra Pradesh where projects on these lines were started with World Bank assistance during kharif 1974. The pilot projects showed very encouraging results and it has accordingly been decided to introduce the reorganized agricultural extension approach in various States. Rajasthan was one State which was quick to realize the effectiveness of this new system.

### THE METHODOLOGY

There is a huge gap between average productivity of various crops on the farmers' fields and the potential. In a paper on "Proposed

Strategy on Agricultural Development" issued by the Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation, it has been stated that "even at the currently available levels of technology *average yields can be increased by 3 to 6 times.*" This must be taken as a challenge for agricultural extension effort in the country. This is at the same time a promise that effective extension effort can lead to a huge increase in the country's prosperity.

The spirit behind the approach is that any land even though it might not have yielded a satisfactory crop in the past can yet be made to yield a good crop within the brief crop season period provided the farmers are advised in precise terms what to do, in their own fields, step by step, *every week or fortnight*. The Training and Visit system ensures this effectively.

The new agricultural extension methodology aims at ensuring transfer of know-how evolved by agricultural scientists, after problem-oriented research in agricultural farms, to the farmers in wide-spread areas through an effective time-bound system. Transfer of research findings to the farmers' fields under the methodology is sought to be achieved in two broad stages. Stage I, "Training", provides for transfer of technology from the research scientists and subject matter specialists to the extension workers, particularly Village Level Workers (VLWs) on a fixed day and time, once every fortnight. Stage II, "Visits," provides for transfer of know-how from the extension workers, through a fixed programme of visits once every week or fortnight, to groups of farmers in each Village Level Worker's area of operation.

Training under the system is imparted *once every fortnight*, on fixed days, say Friday and Saturday. A sub-division covering about 80-100 VLWs has been found convenient as the basic unit for operation of the system. Responsibility for effective training of VLWs is entrusted to a group of Subject Matter Specialists including, in particular, an Agronomist and a Plant Protection Specialist provided at the sub-divisional level. Training under the system is imparted to groups of 30-40 VLWs and Agriculture Extension Officers (AEOs) directly by the Subject Matter Specialists. The training is concentrated on 2 to 3 selected crops only and is related to the limited know-how covering a period of a fortnight only at a time. The training includes theory as well as practical field work and a whole day is invested in each session. Training on this intensive basis has been found extremely effective in raising the level of know-

how of the field-level extension workers, namely, the VLWs and AEOs to a very high calibre.

A VLW is required, after receiving the training, to transmit his knowledge to 500 to 800 farmers in his circle. The farmers are divided into eight groups and the VLW is required to visit each group on a fixed day, say, from Monday to Thursday every two weeks. About 10 per cent of the farming families in each group are identified as "Contact Farmers." The VLW has to ensure that the know-how received by him at the training session will be implemented at least on the fields of these "Contact Farmers." The contact farmers have the responsibility of ensuring spread of this know-how received from the VLWs to other farmers in their neighbourhood.

#### SALIENT FEATURES OF REORGANIZED AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SET-UP

The key to success of this extension methodology is that the AEOs and VLWs should be utilized under an intensive time-bound management system in a fixed programme of training as well as visits to farmers' fields regularly every fortnight. It would, therefore, be necessary that the VLWs should work on agricultural extension and agricultural production programme exclusively, and be placed under the control of the State Agriculture Department for ensuring this.

A VLW for agricultural extension work is provided broadly for a group of 500 farm families in intensive areas like major irrigation systems or areas with large distance or having other special considerations and for a group of 800 farm families in other areas. One AEO is required for supervision of eight VLWs.

A sub-division covering about 3-5 blocks, headed by a Sub-Divisional Agricultural Officer and supported by a team of Subject-Matter Specialists, especially in the fields of Agronomy and Plant Protection along with one Training Officer, is the basic unit for operation of the system. At the district level, additional subject-matter specialists are provided in the field specialization not covered by the existing specialists and which are specifically required for the particular area. The extension service is placed under a whole-time Additional Director of Agriculture (Extension) with suitable technical assistance at the State level, under the overall control of the Director of Agriculture.

Since the system is based on observing a tight schedule of visits and requires a great deal of supervision at all levels, adequate

provision needs to be made for providing transport facilities, particularly at the sub-divisional level. Jeeps are made available for this purpose. In addition, loans are provided to AEOs for purchase of motor-cycles and to VLWs for purchase of bicycles.

The methodology provides for direct contact between research scientists and subject-matter specialists and the field staff, ensuring at the same time an effective feedback of field problems, making research more practical and field-oriented. There is thus imperative need for high quality, practical, locally relevant, applied and higher level research for ensuring availability of purposeful know-how. Under the new system, the extension organization has to function in close collaboration with the research stations and vice-versa. A separate National Agricultural Research Project has been finalized for World Bank assistance by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research for providing research support for the extension programme.

#### CENTRAL ASSISTANCE

The Government of India is providing assistance to the State Governments under a Centrally-sponsored scheme to the extent of 75 per cent for additional requirements of Gramsevakas, VLWs, additional Agricultural Extension Officers, Subject-Matter Specialists at sub-division and district levels, besides jeeps at sub-divisional levels. On the basis of proposals received, assistance has already been provided to Rajasthan, as well as to the States of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, West Bengal, Manipur, Tripura and Arunachal Pradesh. The remaining States have also been requested by the Government of India to furnish their specific proposals.

#### WORLD BANK ASSISTANCE

Impressed by the results achieved in the Rajasthan Canal and Chambal Project areas, the Rajasthan Government approached the World Bank in 1977 for assistance to introduce this new extension method in 18 out of 26 districts. Other States also displayed keen interest. Projects for intensification of agricultural extension in Rajasthan and other States have already been accepted for World Bank assistance and are being implemented. The amounts allocated for these Projects by the International Development Association (IDA), which is roughly about 50 per cent of the Project costs, are shown against each State:

<i>State</i>	<i>Credit Allocation (U.S. \$ in million)</i>
Assam	8.00
Bihar	8.00
Madhya Pradesh	10.00
Orissa	20.00
Rajasthan	13.00
West Bengal	12.00
Gujarat	7.00
Haryana	6.20
Karnataka	1.00

In view of the encouraging results, the Government of India has proposed to pose to the World Bank another Composite Project in the fiscal years 1980 and 1981 to cover the State of Maharashtra (already appraised by the World Bank) and other States that may show interest in the same.

#### IMPACT OF THE PROGRAMME

Impact of the T & V extension approach both on productivity and economic upliftment has been assessed in some of the areas and the results are very encouraging as would be evident by the table below:

##### 1. Chambal Area, Rajasthan

(Yield in Quintals/Hectare)

<i>Crop</i>	<i>Average yield before start of the project</i>	<i>1974-75</i>	<i>1975-76</i>	<i>1976-77</i>	<i>1977-78</i>	<i>Targeted level under World Bank Project</i>
Paddy	20.49	N.A.	33.51	36.06	43.60	35.00
Jowar	4.39	N.A.	4.02	6.63	8.30	8.30
Sugarcane	408.00	Crop not taken under the programme	Crop cutting experiments not under-taken	594	605	710



**2. Sugarbeet Project, District Ganganagar, Rajasthan**

<i>Year</i>	<i>Area (in hectares)</i>	<i>Production (in tonnes)</i>	<i>Average yield (in tonnes/hectares)</i>	<i>Value of sugar produced (Rs. in lakhs)</i>
1970-71	100	879	8.75	—
1971-72	699	2751	3.80	2.06
1972-73	785	11400	14.52	20.13
1973-74	1125	9475	8.42	21.92
1974-75	714	5616	8.00	12.91
<b>AFTER INTRODUCTION OF PROJECT</b>				
1975-76	1200	24211	20.00	60.59
1976-77	1200	32823	27.50	76.94
1977-78	1120	33600	30.00	—

**3. Rajasthan Canal Area**

A programme for reorganization of agricultural extension system was taken up in the Rajasthan Canal Area in Rajasthan with the assistance of the World Bank under their Command Area Development Project from kharif 1974. Irrigation from the Rajasthan Canal was started in 1962 and is being progressively expanded. The following indicators of economic development in the area from start of irrigation in 1962 up to introduction of the reorganized agricultural extension programme in 1974 and in the year 1978-79 (up to September 1978) have been indicated by the Area Development Commissioner, Rajasthan Canal Project:

<i>Sl. No.</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>At start of extension project (kharif 1974)</i>	<i>1974-75</i>	<i>1975-76</i>	<i>1976-77</i>	<i>1977-78</i>	<i>1978-79 (upto Sept. 1978)</i>
1.	Tractors	221	431	680	996	1458	1806
2.	Trollies	201	382	605	895	1266	1431
3.	Threshers	39	125	268	466	752	938
4.	Sprayers	108	219	490	740	1062	1342
5.	Dusters	30	63	90	126	212	261
6.	Pumping Sets (for seepage water)	11	30	53	83	115	125

The following data have also been provided in respect of Hanumangarh extension district in respect of some additional indicators:

### Hanumangarh Extension District

Items	At start of extension project (kharif 1974)	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79 (up to Sept. 1978)	Total
Pakka Houses	975	225	325	306	862	424	3117
Jeeps and Cars	124	40	34	30	58	16	302

Impact of the programme on economic development has been assessed in a single VLW circle served by Lal Chand Syag, VLW, in Rajasthan Canal Area in Rajasthan and is indicated below:

### Impact in a Single VLW Circle

Sl. No.	Items	1973-74	1977-78
1.	Tractors and Trolleys	5	29
2.	Threshers	Nil	14
3.	Pumping Sets	4	30
4.	Dusters and Sprayers	2	58
5.	Jeeps and Cars	2	9
6.	Livestock:		
	(i) Buffaloes	211	361
	(ii) Cows	230	401
	(iii) Camels	235	321
	(iv) Goats and Sheep	314	568
7.	Pucca Houses	7	67
8.	Labour rates	Rs. 4/- per day	Rs. 10/- per day

### CONCLUSION

The "Training and Visit" extension approach is quite simple in concept, and yet seems to provide an effective answer to the frustra-

rating problem of raising agricultural productivity on fields of millions of illiterate farmers. As has been explained above, a good crop can be brought up within the brief crop season of 4-5 months on any given field by ensuring step-by-step implementation of the relevant package of know-how. The T & V system ensures this first by breaking up the training of VLWs into brief digestible morsets of 2-3 practices covering a brief period of a fortnight at a time. This know-how is then repeated on the farmers' fields once again in digestible morsets of 2-3 steps at a time, through a fixed schedule of visit. The data outlined above would show that given the right decisions and the right effort, proposed extension approach may be able to have a substantial impact on agricultural production, followed by overall rural development.

### 3

## Origin and Changing Role of Rajasthan Land Development Corporation

Bhupendra Hooja

SET UP in October 1974 as an intermediary financial agency to facilitate the flow of institutional credit for the two World Bank-assisted Command Area Development Projects in the Chambal and Rajasthan Canal areas, the Rajasthan Land Development Corporation<sup>1</sup> (RLDC) has become a significant institutional innovation.<sup>2</sup>

The functions assigned to the Corporation and the definition of "land development" have been given a much broader scope under the Rajasthan Land Development Corporation Act, 1975. As a result the Corporation has been able to undertake work in some other command areas such as Gang and North-West Bhakra areas and to take an active interest in project formulation for Jawai command area (district Pali) and Mahi command area (district Banswara) as also to initiate a project for laying underground irrigation pipes in the areas along the river Luni in district Barmer.

A further diversification has taken place recently when the State Government decided to utilize the RLDC as a sort of "mini-secretariat" for the Rajasthan State Land Water Use Board (RSLWUB) with the Managing Director, RLDC, as its Member Secretary, thus involving the Corporation in initiating long-term, in-depth studies and preparing policies for proper and scientific land and water use in Rajasthan.

The State Government is also considering whether the Corporation can serve as an intermediary financial institution (or implementing agency) for attracting institutional credit for large scale forestry development in the State.

### GENESIS: WORLD BANK PROJECTS

In May 1974, the Government of India and the Government of Rajasthan negotiated two agreements with the World Bank (IBRD

and IDA respectively) for command area development (CAD) projects to cover the Chambal and the Rajasthan Canal command areas. These projects, being the "first"<sup>3</sup> CAD projects in India, were designed to expedite the opening up of the respective command areas with the development of infrastructure facilities and to ensure maximum utilization of irrigation potential.

Financial assistance from the World Bank was proposed to be routed through the Government of India and the Agricultural Refinance and Development Corporation.

During the preceding years, as investment mounted up on many large and multipurpose projects, it began to be increasingly felt that the vast potential of irrigation which had been developed at a fairly high cost was not being adequately utilized. The programme of command area development was conceived to fill up the increasing gap between the potential and actual utilization of irrigation facilities.

The concept of CAD covered the provision of all necessary physical works, facilities and supporting agricultural services to ensure the optimum production of foodgrains and other crops under each irrigation project.

#### RAJASTHAN CANAL (C.A.D.) PROJECT AREA

For example, in the RCP area it was noted that "by the end of 1973 the main canal and 915 km on non-lined distribution canals had been completed to serve an area of 2.35 lac hectares, and about 1.08 lac hectares of land was irrigable. Out of the remaining potential irrigable areas, 34,000 hectares comprised tal soils and 50,000 hectares low sand dunes. Based on the experience in the neighbouring Gang and Bhakhra areas, these lands were also considered to be suitable for cultivation. About 35,000 hectares consisting of high dunes required stabilization through controlled pasture development."<sup>4</sup>

At that time, irrigation was available during the kharif season only; but with the likely completion of the Pong Dam reservoir by 1974 perennial supplies were expected. It was then realized that full benefits of the available irrigation water could not be achieved without lining the canals and watercourses and other land development works. There was also an urgent need to level and suitably develop areas under high sand dunes.

The development of irrigation potential or its utilization was also not found to be even. In a small part of block "B", cropping

intensity of 130 per cent had been achieved, but on a limited scale. In most of the other blocks, even after 12 years of irrigation, cropping intensity was found to be less than 80 per cent, and only 70 per cent of commanded land was irrigable.

In an earlier Feasibility Report<sup>5</sup> prepared by the Special Schemes Organization of the State Agriculture Department in May 1971, it was admitted that "the full utilization of the irrigation potential of Rajasthan Canal, because of the peculiarity of the project area, has its own problems." The report explained, "The process of development of the canal command area starts with survey of the area and consolidation of the existing holdings. The government land is then allotted in units of one *Murrabba* (15.825 acres) per agricultural family. Village sites are demarcated and provided with drinking water storages—the source of drinking water being the canal water. All the other requisites of the new colonization have to be planned, e.g., schools, health centres, development blocks, administrative offices, etc."<sup>6</sup>

*Land Levelling:* The report assured that though "the task of colonization is formidable but not unsurmountable. . . ." This in spite of the fact that until then "development expenditure" on opening up the area had not been "according to requirements." "We have concentrated mainly on the construction of the Canal." With 4th Plan Central assistance being available and outlays for roads, drinking water, afforestation and agricultural inputs being gradually stepped up, an expenditure of Rs. 9.10 crores was anticipated, of which nearly Rs. 2 crores had been spent during two years of 1969-70 and 1970-71.

In the Feasibility Report, reference has been made to the detailed and semi-detailed surveys of soils carried out by a UNDP project, which revealed the problem of levelling the sand dunes in 8 lac hectares out of the total 28.40 lac culturable command area. The report also utilized another UNDP study "regarding conveyance losses in field channels to formulate a programme of lining 23,000 miles of watercourses." It was emphasized in the report that though large funds had been spent on the canal construction "development expenditure" or expenditure on the opening up of the command area had been on a very nominal scale. Thus, the Feasibility Report<sup>7</sup> had recommended an 11-point programme of development which included the following items or activities—land development, lining and tractorization, afforestation, establishment of market

yards, cooperation, construction of village roads, development of power facilities and many other programmes in the social welfare sector covering educational and health fields in particular.

With regard to financing arrangements, it was envisaged that for land-levelling and lining of watercourses, loans mainly by the development banks would be provided for the cultivators, while power schemes would need loans raised by the Rajasthan State Electricity Board and for construction of market yards. Loans would be taken or channelised through the State Agro-Industries Corporation. For other activities, budgetary provisions were envisaged.

In both the proposals, namely, the 1971 Feasibility Report and the World Bank Appraisal Report, 1974, an attempt was made to enumerate the various constraints<sup>8</sup> which hampered the full utilization of the irrigation as well as agricultural potential of the area. Among these there was a prominent mention of the lack of land levelling and absence of lined watercourses, which were proposed to be implemented under the control and guidance of the Command Area Development Authority, with beneficiaries being provided loans by land development banks.

#### CHAMBAL

Similar was the situation in the Chambal command area. This irrigation-cum-power project had been started in 1953 and continued until 1971. Irrigation was, however, available from 1960. In the words of the Appraisal Report<sup>9</sup> this was "one of the larger irrigation and power projects to have been built in India since independence."

The gross project area in Rajasthan was estimated to be "about 485,000 hectares, compared to the culturable command or irrigable area of 229,000 hectares." As was noted in the Appraisal Report, "the non-irrigable area consists of ravines and erosion gullies and a few high spots, but rainfed crops are grown on much of this area. The area actually irrigated has reached only 165,000 hectares or so, for a variety of reasons. Due to lack of water control and low irrigation efficiencies, water has not reached the lower ends of the distribution system. Farmers have been reluctant to use irrigation water, for which they must pay, when their major problem is water-logging. For these reasons agricultural development in the Chambal Project Area has not fulfilled expectations at the time the irrigation project was constructed."

Again, to quote from the Project Appraisal Report, "the [original] project did not include any drainage construction and did not initially provide watercourses to convey water from the outlets from the minor canals to individual farm holdings." The cultivators constructed watercourses without adequate guidance and they proved to be of low standard or were laid out in a haphazard manner. In 1965, the Government decided to construct watercourses for the farmers with part of the cost being charged to them in the form of a levy of Rs. 32/ha. But, as the Appraisal Report indicated, "the watercourses are unlined ditches about 20 cm. deep along the existing lot boundaries and serve directly a majority of fields. The remaining fields are served by field ditches constructed by the farmers. The area served by a watercourse, the chak, has an average area of 35 ha."

"Large parts of the command area are subject to waterlogging which had led to declining yields over large areas and by 1973 to a cessation of production on about 5 per cent of the area, which is now too saline for growing crops." A map attached to the report indicated the area which had water table less than 3 m. from the surface-based measurements from village wells. This area had increased year by year and in 1973 it was about 140,000 ha. According to the report, "the reason for the waterlogging is clear: excessive leakage and seepage from the canal system coupled with a lack of any artificial surface or sub-surface drainage."

The Appraisal Report referred to and drew considerably upon studies conducted under a United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) entitled "Land and Water Use and Management in the Chambal Irrigated Area, Rajasthan" which had been started in 1967 and completed in 1973. It was observed in the Appraisal Report that "one of the major thrusts of the UNDP projects was the development of a system of on-farm development suited to this area." Under the UNDP project, several pilot schemes had been started since 1970 and by June 1974 it was expected that about 2000 ha. area would have been covered. In the course of these experiments, the emphasis had been shifted from small and scattered demonstration areas to the development of larger blocks which were more representative of the project scale condition. The final design also emerged out of these trials and demonstrations.

Thus the World Bank-assisted Project comprised the following items:



(1) Irrigation and drainage works including lining of certain sections of canal, canal capacity, improvement works, control structures, aquatic weed control, silt removal and reshaping of canal banks, etc.;

(2) On-farm development works; and

(3) Roads.

Out of these, it was proposed that on-farm development (o.f.d.) works should be financed through loans from financial institutions like Cooperative Land Development Banks and commercial banks.

The following objectives of o.f.d. works were outlined:

(1) More efficient water use and hence a greater irrigated cropping intensity;

(2) Higher yields through more timely application of irrigation water, adequate drainage and better cultivation techniques; and

(3) Lower production costs, through an improved road network.

And to realize these objectives, the o.f.d. component of the Command Area Project (CAD) was to include:

(1) Realignment of farm boundaries to permit a more rational lay-out of the irrigation drainage and road system;

(2) Construction of irrigation and drainage ditches to serve each field;

(3) Construction of roads (cart-tracks) to serve each field; and

(4) Land shaping to enable efficient irrigation of field crops.

A Project target of 50,000 ha. of o.f.d. works over a 6-year period was considered to be feasible, and for this six blocks or zones having a total irrigable area of 65,000 ha. were identified out of which the target area of 50,000 ha. was to be selected. The o.f.d. programme, along with other components of the World Bank Project, was to be implemented under the overall supervision and control of the proposed Command Area Authority of which the Area Development Commissioner (ADC) was to be the Chief Executive Officer assisted by various departmental or project heads and their field organizations.

In the earlier Feasibility Report (August 1972)<sup>10</sup> prepared and presented by the local command area officers and the State Government, it was envisaged that loans for o.f.d. works would be forthcoming mainly from the land development banks. But on-the-spot studies and discussions carried out by the World Bank Appraisal Mission with various concerned parties had brought out the need

for setting up a separate statutory agency for financing the o.f.d. programme.

#### ROLE OF THE PROPOSED CORPORATION AS PER APPRAISAL REPORTS

Since both the projects, *viz.*, Rajasthan Canal CAD and Chambal CAD were negotiated simultaneously and the groundwork had also been done on almost parallel lines, in both the Projects, the role and functions of the proposed Rajasthan Land Development Corporation and its financial and organizational structures were delineated on the same lines. These have been spelt out in both the (main) Project Reports and their separate annexures.

As per Chambal Appraisal Report, "the proposed Rajasthan Land Development Corporation would be a statutory corporation created for the purpose of:

- (1) undertaking programme of on-farm development works in Rajasthan;
- (2) operating as an agency for financing these programmes; and
- (3) recovering the amounts spent on developmental programme from the owners of the land."<sup>11</sup>

It was further envisaged that the Corporation would mainly finance land development projects in which the participation of all the concerned beneficiary land holders would be compulsory under law and repayment of loans would also be made obligatory. "The beneficiary cultivators would have the option of doing the work themselves or paying cash for it or to apply for ordinary bank loans, if they have the legal capacity to do so, or otherwise to accept 'special loans' from the Corporation."<sup>12</sup>

The share capital was proposed to be contributed equally by the Government of India and the Government of Rajasthan. According to the tables attached to the annexures it was meant to be Rs. 4 crores for each Project area or sector (but later on when the Act was passed, the amount was raised to Rs. 10 crores).

It was further proposed "that the share capital would be used to provide advance payments to the Command Area Authority between the receipt of farmers' loan applications and the sanction of loans by the commercial banks, and for equipment purchases in the first and third years of the project, and to cover bad debts for its

outstanding special loans which would be repayable to the Government of India."<sup>13</sup>

Regarding "special loans" to be given by the Corporation to ineligible or unwilling cultivators or those having defective titles or suffering from over-dues, etc., it was proposed that funds would be loaned by the Government of India to the Corporation through the Government of Rajasthan for 15 years at the interest rate of 7 per cent per annum. "The Corporation would also be able to borrow short-term funds from the commercial banks. The responsibility for collecting payment and interest due thereon and on the special loans was vested with the Corporation."<sup>14</sup>

In the annexure relating to Organization, Management and Project Financing, the role of the Command Area Authority and the detailed procedure for financing the project works and such other matter have been described at length.<sup>15</sup>

As mentioned earlier, one of the main objectives of setting up a statutory corporation and enacting the Rajasthan Land Development Corporation Act, 1975, has been to provide for legal powers to carry out "compulsory on-farm development" for the "whole chak" and to recover the costs of development. It was further emphasized simultaneously that "the success of a chak-wise on-farm development would also depend on the willingness of the great majority of the farmers to participate in the programme." Special extension effort supported by updating of the land records and making effective recoveries of old outstanding dues were, therefore, advocated.

The rationale or justification for setting up the Rajasthan Land Development Corporation was also stressed in the following terms: "The proposed financing plan for on-farm development works under the project is aimed at keeping GOR's (Government of Rajasthan) budgetary liabilities to a minimum. Financing would be provided to farmers from two sources: commercial and land development loans<sup>16</sup> and special loans from the Government of India. Eighty per cent of (commercial) loan amounts would be refinanced by the ARDC."

"It was estimated that in the Chambal Command Area an estimated 30 per cent of on-farm development works would be financed by the RLDC under special loans."<sup>17</sup>

FINANCIAL LINK BETWEEN COMMERCIAL BANKS AND FARMERS  
RLDC was also expected to act "as an agent for the participating commercial and land development banks in the preparation and

initial processing of loan applications, for channelling of Government of India (GOI) subsidies and for providing special loans to ineligible farmers. As a government corporation, its liabilities, as a result of slow loan recoveries, would affect the GOR Budget. To reduce these liabilities to a minimum, all legal powers would be available to enforce compulsory on-farm development, and it would be possible to force farmers to apply for commercial loans. Land Development works for farmers who refuse to apply for commercial credit would be financed from RLDC Special Loan Fund. To reduce the number of such cases, these loans would carry harsher repayment conditions."<sup>18</sup>

### PROPOSED ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

With regard to the organization and management of affairs of the Corporation, the relevant Annexures provided that at the headquarters in Jaipur, the Chief Executive Officer, *viz.*, the Managing Director, would, on the one hand, be guided by the Chairman (Secretary to the Government for the Command Area Development and Water Utilization Department being the ex-officio Chairman) and, on the other, by the respective staff officers of the RLDC such as the Chief Loans Officer in respect of loaning and borrowings, the Chief Technical Officer for project appraisal, the Chief Accountant for loan account, etc., and the Legal Officer for the agreements, and so on. In fact the head office of the Corporation was proposed to be organized in four divisions<sup>19</sup> (as indicated in the attached organization chart).

As suggested in the Appraisal Report<sup>20</sup> the management would vest in the Board of Directors comprising:

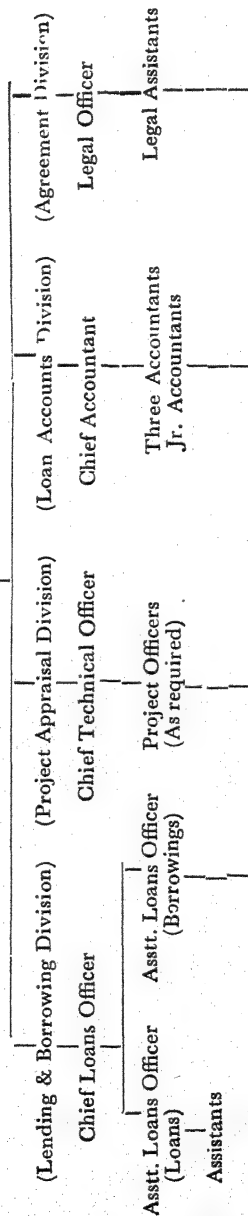
- (1) Chairman, Secretary, CAD & WU, Department of State Government (Ex-officio).
- (2) Representative of the Managing Director, ARDC.
- (3) Financial Commissioner and Secretary to Government of Rajasthan (GOR).
- (4) Representative of the Joint Secretary (CAD), Government of India (GOI).
- (5) Other representatives of GOI from the Planning Commission and the Ministry of Finance.
- (6) Area Development Commissioner (Rajasthan Canal).
- (7) Area Development Commissioner (Chambal).

DIAGRAM I

CHAIRMAN

Nominated Board of Directors with G.O.I. & G.O.R. Representatives  
(Secretary CAD & WU ex-officio)

Managing Director  
(assisted by)



BRANCH OFFICES

Loans Officer      Accountant      Supporting Personnel

Commercial Banks for Ordinary Loans → RLDC → CAA/ADC → Farmers Eligible  
(Also to be provided Special Loans) → Ineligible/Unwilling (Special Loan)  
(entitled to ordinary loans)

(8) Managing Director, Rajasthan Land Development Corporation.

Further it was recommended that in both the RCP and Chambal Project areas, "the Corporation would set up small branch offices consisting of Loans Officer and Accountant and a number of supporting personnel." It was also provided that "in addition, many officers of the Command Area Authority would also have power to act as agents of the Rajasthan Land Development Corporation in preparing and sanctioning loan applications."<sup>21</sup>

It was envisaged that "on-farm development (o.f.d.) would be implemented by the Command Area Authority"—in case of Chambal, an Irrigation and Land Development Department was proposed consisting of three Irrigation and Drainage Circles and one Land Development Circle; while in the case of RCP areas, the Irrigation and Land Development Department was to be headed by a Chief Engineer.

The engineering costs, which were to be included in the o.f.d. cost to be financed by the farmers, were proposed "to be covered from budgetary allocations by the GOR." Further, "RLDC would withhold an equivalent amount from the loan amounts made available to it to meet its own operating cost."<sup>22</sup>

Since the main function envisaged for the Corporation was to operate as "an agency for financing the o.f.d. programme including special loans etc., for recovering the same," it may help to understand the proposed flow of funds from the diagram given.

#### RAJASTHAN LAND DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION ACT, 1975

In the Rajasthan Land Development Corporation Act, 1975<sup>23</sup> the scope of the Corporation's activities has, however, been given a very wide span. According to the preamble, this is "an Act to constitute a Corporation for the *execution of projects* relating to land development with a view to preventing damage to land and loss in agricultural productivity and to securing optimum utilization of land and water resources in the State of Rajasthan and for other matters connected therewith or identical thereto."

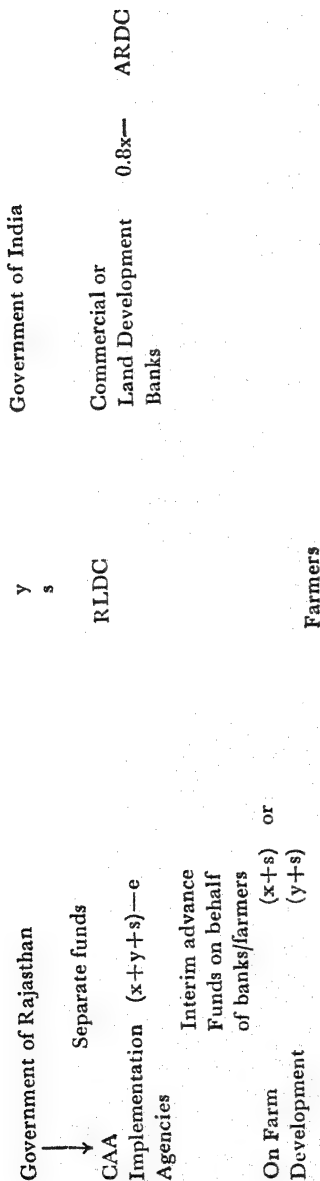
#### LAND DEVELOPMENT

The term land development includes the following works as per sub-clause (ix) of sub-section (1) of section 2 relating to definitions:

## DIAGRAM II

World Bank (about 50 per cent of the Project Cost)

Separate funds



### Legend :

CAA—Command Area Authority.

x — Commercial loans including cost of engineering.

y — GOI special loans, including cost of engineering.

s — GOI subsidies, a percentage of land development costs including engineering costs.

r — Repayment of x or y with interest.

→ — Budgetary funds with which RLDC is not concerned.

—GOI gives y and s to RLDC.

—RLDC to give (x+y+s)—e to CAA which is looked as either (x+s) or (y+s) against farmers name.

(1) construction, renovation, redesigning, realigning and lining of watercourses;

(2) land levelling and land shaping, including realignment of field boundaries;

(3) digging, renovation, redesigning and realigning of field drains;

(4) providing of drop structures, culverts, and farm roads in the fields;

(5) land reclamation by use of engineering, biological and chemical measures, including leaching;

(6) contour-bunding and "nala" bunding;

(7) growing of trees, plants, shrubs and grasses;

(8) development of permanent and temporary pastures, farm forestry and commercial afforestation;

(9) such other works as may be necessary or incidental to development of land, or ground of flow water potential and for optimizing the utilization of land water resources;

(10) repairing and maintenance of any of the foregoing works.

It may be seen that construction of watercourses and field drains, land-levelling including realignment of field boundaries and provision of other related structures, etc., land reclamation, contour and nala-bunding, growing of trees, plants and development of pastures and even commercial afforestation, etc., have been specifically mentioned as land development measures to prevent damage to productive capacity of land and to ensure a proper, scientific management and utilization of land and water resources.

#### OTHER FUNCTIONS

Further, while defining the business and functions of the Corporation under section 17, a varied list of activities and functions has been indicated which the Corporation can undertake and these include:

(1) formulation, appraisal and evaluation of projects;

(2) erecting machinery, workshops, godowns, bridges, railway sidings and other structures for purposes of execution of works;

(3) providing consultancy service to the State Government and to other persons with regard to strategy of land development and other infrastructure programmes like—

(a) development and implementation of canal system, channels, drainage facilities;



- (b) planning and training requirements;
- (c) demonstration and cropping patterns;
- (d) land-wise research programmes;
- (e) livestock development;
- (f) afforestation programme; and
- (g) rural afforestation;
- (4) carrying out extension works in the project areas;
- (5) providing training facilities to personnel likely to benefit the Corporation in execution of the projects;
- (6) undertaking research and surveys and technical and economic studies in connection with development of agriculture, agro-industries, etc.

All these activities are in addition to the financial functions as originally conceived by the Appraisal Reports, such as:

- (1) financing of projects and related infrastructure programmes;
- (2) drawing, accepting, executing, discounting bills of exchange, etc., for the purpose of the business of the Corporation;
- (3) assisting land-holders in obtaining ordinary loans;
- (4) assisting banks and financial institutions in collecting and processing of loan applications and other documents;
- (5) granting of special loans (to ineligible and unwilling farmers); and
- (6) obtaining indemnities, guarantees, concessions, etc., for the purpose of the business of the Corporation.

#### SOME FEATURES OF THE ACT

(A) *Operational*: The Act provides that under sections 20 and 21, the State Government may sanction any project and specify areas entrusted to the Corporation and the works to be executed by the Corporation in such areas. The same section also provides that the Corporation would be the sole authority for execution of works in these areas in collaboration with "the prescribed agency," except in cases where the land-holders execute the works within the period and in the manner specified by the competent authority. By a subsequent notification, the State Government has declared the respective Command Area Authority or the Area Development Commissioner to be the "prescribed agency" in their area. Thus the legal position has been, at least in respect of the on-going projects,

that legally the works are being executed by the Corporation, but in collaboration with or through the agency of the respective Area Development Commissioners and the project engineers under their control.

An essential feature of the legislation has been an element of compulsion in getting the land development or on-farm development works done in the land-holdings grouped together into convenient *chaks* or catchments under the command of an outlet, or into drainage catchments, according to an approved design. It gives necessary enabling powers to the various concerned authorities, such as the power to enter upon a land-holding for survey, investigation and execution of works, etc. The Act also provides for proportionate distribution of cost of works amongst all the beneficiaries of the land according to the size of their respective holdings. There are clear provisions about the grant of ordinary loans by the commercial banks and special loans by the Corporation as well as for recovery of the loans due from the land-holders particularly in respect of special loans. The Act also provides for settlement of disputes as well as action which may be necessary to have some defects rectified in case of defaults by the Corporation and other officers.

(B) *Share Capital and Funds*: The Act provides for an authorized share capital of Rs. 10 crores. It may be recalled that as per Appraisal Reports, the authorized share capital was indicated to be Rs. 4 crores in respect of each project area. It has been subsequently agreed that both the State Government and the Government of India shall contribute the share capital in equal proportion. Subscribed capital so far has been Rs. 5.80 crores. The Corporation has also managed to borrow funds from the Government of India through the State Government.

(C) *Management*: The management of the Corporation has been vested in the Board of Directors comprising the following six nominated persons, namely:

(1) a Secretary to the State Government nominated by the State Government, who shall be the Chairman of the Board;

(2) not more than five officials of the State Government, one of whom may be appointed by the State Government to be Vice-Chairman of the Board;

(3) not less than three officials of the Central Government nominated by that Government;

(4) one director to be nominated by the State Government to represent banks and financing institutions;

(5) one director having special knowledge or practical experience in respect of agriculture and rural economics to be nominated by the State Government;

(6) not more than four directors nominated by the State Government from amongst land-holders of the project areas, two of whom shall be so nominated from the weaker sections<sup>24</sup> of those areas; and the other two shall be from amongst the small farmers;

(7) a managing director to be appointed by the State Government, except in the case of the first appointment, in consultation with the Board.

*Chief Executive Officer:* The Managing Director<sup>25</sup> is the Chief Executive Officer, who exercises powers and duties as delegated to him by the Board or entrusted to him by the rules and regulations<sup>26</sup> or otherwise. The duties and functions of the Managing Director and of the Regional Officers have been spelt out in the following rules, regulations and guidelines besides resolutions. There is also a provision for the appointment of an Executive Committee and by a subsequently adopted Board resolution a large number of financial and executive functions have been entrusted to the same.

*Regional Set-Up:* Section 22 of the Act provides for the appointment of Regional Managers. Section 4 also enables the Corporation to establish its offices or agencies in other parts of the State with the approval of the State Government.

From the point of view of work performance and implementation of the programme, these managerial or administrative arrangements seem to have been made on the suggestions contained in the Project Appraisal Reports.

It is apparent that the statutory Corporation which has been set up under the Act has a wider field of operation and scope of activities than what was originally envisaged in the Appraisal Reports. The Corporation can act anywhere in the State and, besides formulating projects, rendering technical consultancy services or financing the projects, it can undertake to execute the works either on its own or in collaboration with the prescribed agency or through the appropriate department of the State Government or through any other agency.

However, so far the activities of the Corporation have been largely confined to the two project areas and mainly concentrated upon the financial arrangements.

## R.L.D.C. AT WORK

The very first report of the newly set up Corporation makes an interesting and revealing reading. To quote, "The Corporation was set up in September 1974. The Managing Director and Accounts Officer were taken on deputation. The Statistical Officer joined in April 1975. The Chief Loans Officer from the Reserve Bank of India and the Financial Controller and the Regional Manager, Bikaner, were taken on deputation in June, 1975. The initial period was utilized in setting up the nucleus organization for the Corporation . . .<sup>26</sup>

"A regional office of the Corporation was established in Bikaner in June 1975.

"Various positions in the Corporation were filled up by June, 1975, and thereafter liaison was established with the participating commercial banks and the Agricultural Refinance and Development Corporation.

"Policy and procedures regarding various aspects of the on-farm development programme were defined. On-farm development works could be undertaken only after these preliminaries were finalized and no progress in this regard was possible in the year 1974-75.

"The State Government contributed Rs. 40l acs towards the share capital of the Corporation during the year under report (1974-75). The Government of India has also contributed its share capital."<sup>27</sup>

Out of the amount of Rs. 80 lacs a sum of Rs. 20 lacs was advanced to the Area Development Commissioner (RCP) as interim finance in order to execute the "on-farm development works" which meant mainly lining of the watercourses in that area. Similarly, an interim finance of Rs. 1 lac was advanced to the Area Development Commissioner, Chambal, Kota. Thus ended the first year and RLDC had taken its first steps towards its destiny.

*Organizational Aspects:* Including a full-time Managing Director (an Officer of IAS cadre, selection grade), a 12-member Board of Directors was also nominated by the State Government. The other Directors were—Agriculture Production Commissioner (who was at that time also Secretary to the Government for Command Area Development and Water Utilization Department), Financial Commissioner and Irrigation Commissioner (both of them Secretaries to the Government); the two Area Development Commissioners for

RCP and Chambal respectively; Director of Agriculture, Dean of the Faculty of Agriculture Engineering, University of Udaipur; three representatives of the Government of India, *viz.* Deputy Secretary, Ministry of Finance (Department of Banking), Deputy Secretary, Department of Agriculture, Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation and Deputy Commissioner (Water Management), Department of Agriculture; and Deputy General Manager, State Bank of Bikaner, Jaipur, which had been assigned an important, rather leading role in the RCP area to represent the interests of all participating banks.

It may be mentioned that with slight changes, the composition of the Board has remained almost the same. Changes have come when the Development Commissioner (and Principal Secretary to the Government) was given charge of CAD and WU Department at the Government level; or when the Irrigation Commissioner and Secretary to Government (Revenue and Colonization Department) or when a more senior officer (IAS super-time scale) took over as Managing Director, or when two non-officials representing the weaker sections or small farmers from the Chambal area were also nominated to the board.

But with frequent transfers of the concerned State Government of India officers, there has been a fairly quick turn-over of the Government Directors, and even of the Managing Director. The same has been the case with other government officers and other staff on deputation with the Corporation. Many of them have had a short stay with the Corporation.

The Corporation has also been rather slow in building up its own cadre. Most of the key posts and even middle or lower level of supervisory posts in the accounts or the technical wing and even on the administrative or ministerial side have been filled up, even though temporarily, by persons on deputation from other departments.

Even in regard to rules to govern or guide the service or establishment matters, or for financial and accounts procedure, etc., the Board has been liberally opting for the existing government rules and procedures. This seems to have been a convenient strategy and perhaps a short-cut solution to the problems. But perhaps in the process, the so-called "Government" or "civil service mentality" or a sort of bureaucratic approach to issues and problems has come to prevail in an organization which should have functioned as a rather adaptive or flexible type of commercial or, in fact, as a banking institution oriented to the development needs of a rather complex type of programme.

But it must be acknowledged that with all its faults or handicaps, the Corporation has managed to deliver the goods. Delay and lapses or instances of lagging behind the prescribed targets, if any, have been largely due to some snag or hitch elsewhere, in other functionally associated organizations, and very few or nominal, if at all, with the Corporation.

To understand it better, it may be necessary to reiterate that though in legal terms o.f.d. works are being executed by (or in the name of) the Corporation, which can be called to account for any lapses, defaults, or deficiencies, the State Government while sanctioning the projects (lining of watercourses to cover 2 lac hectares in RCP, and full package of o.f.d. or land development to cover 50,000 hectares in Chambal) under sections 20 and 21 of the RLDC Act, 1975, has also appointed the respective Command Area Authority or the Area Development Commissioner as "the prescribed agency" for executing these works. A similar resolution was also adopted by the Board of Directors on 10th March, 1975. Similar orders have also been issued in respect of two other command areas *viz.*, Gang Canal Command Area (40,000 Ha.) and North-West Bhakra Command Area (28,000 Ha.) which projects have been launched as pilots or precursors to much larger projects covering the total command of these two canal systems.

Thus it is the direct responsibility of the CAD authorities under the two A.D.C.s of preparing individual chak (or catchment) plans and estimates, to conduct survey, etc., to engage the staff and machinery or equipment for the field units, and to actually implement and supervise the works and to coordinate various streams of activities and agencies, and last but not the least, to maintain the time schedule and quality control, etc.

There is little that the Corporation can do to change or step up the tempo of work except through making the A.D.C. and his colleagues to appreciate its standpoint. Much depends upon mutual goodwill and cooperation in spite of all the provisions of institutional tie-up. The same position exists with regard to financial arrangements with the participating commercial banks, the ARDC and even the two governments.

Coordination at different levels has become the keynote of progress. The Corporation has to keep up a sort of running dialogue with all concerned parties. And monitoring has become one of its routine but important functions, monitoring to locate the pitfalls and

shortcomings, and to ensure regular inflow or outflow of funds. Even when the cultivators complain of delays or defects in their work and the banks tend to withhold the release of due instalments of the loans, the Corporation has to take notice and initiate remedial steps through the respective CAD agencies.

#### ROLE BEING PLAYED BY R.L.D.C.

But there are various stages of work when the R.L.D.C. directly comes into the picture and plays a prominent role, such as:

(1) Scrutiny of the chak estimates and forwarding the same to ARDC for technical clearance;

(2) Scrutiny of loan applications and relevant documents prepared by ADC/Revenue Staff/Colonization Department and forwarding the same to the Banks for sanction; Holding documentation camps, particularly in Chambal areas where crop compensation and subsidy amounts are also calculated and adjusted;

(3) Issuing technical sanctions of chaks after being cleared by ARDC;

(4) Issue of financial sanctions after eligibility of cultivators for ordinary loans has reached the prescribed percentage;

(5) Providing interim finance to ADCs with financial sanctions, work commencement and at subsequent stages of work progress;

(6) To secure reimbursements from banks on the basis of stages of progress of work after banks have released instalments in favour of cultivators;

(7) Sanction and disbursement of special loans at different stages of work and to ensure their recovery;

(8) Receiving final works accounts and forwarding them to banks for final debit of loans to cultivators and adjusting payments with A.D.C.s and the banks.

The position in respect of the above items of work is given below:

	<i>R.C.P.</i>	<i>Chambal</i>
1. <i>Scrutiny of the chak/catchment estimates:</i>		
(a) Technical estimates received (number)	1312 chaks	82 catchments

(b) Estimates cleared and sent to ARDC (No.)	1271 chaks	79 catchments
(c) Estimates cleared by ARDC	1201 chaks	59 catchments
2. <i>Loan Applications:</i>		
(a) Forwarded to banks (numbers)	21774 (up to Jan. 80)	2461 (up to Feb. 80)
(b) Cleared and loans sanctioned (numbers)	18797 (up to Jan. 80)	2003 (up to Feb. 80)
3. <i>Technical sanctions of chaks/catchments issued by R.L.D.C.</i>		
	1201 chaks	59 catchments
4. <i>Financial sanctions issued:</i>		
(a) No. of chaks/catchments recommended for financial sanction	1060 chaks	34 catchments
(b) No. of chaks/catchments financially cleared	995 chaks	33 catchments
5. <i>Advance of interim finance to ADCs (Rs. in lacs)</i>		
	1114.97	289.66
6. <i>Reimbursement from Banks to RLDC (Rs. in lacs)</i>		
	71.124	69.55
7. <i>Special Loans:</i>		
(a) Loans sanctioned (Rs. in lacs)	363.94 (up to Jan. 80)	87.72
(b) Disbursement/debited in accounts of cultivators (Rs. in lacs)	199.44 (up to Jan. 80)	76.14 (up to Nov. 79)

#### MACHINERY AND EQUIPMENT

Yet another aspect in which RLDC is actively involved is related to the procurement of suitable machinery and equipment. Under the present system the Corporation is not only a consultative or advisory body, but is main financing institution for purchase of heavy earth moving and land shaping machinery, elevating scrapers, excavators and ditchers as well as tractors, trucks and trolleys. An amount of Rs. 51 lacs has so far been given to ADC, RCP, for purchase of



trucks. Similarly, various sums totalling Rs. 194.06 lacs have been advanced to the ADC, Chambal, Kota. The up-to-date commitment in respect of Chambal may be around Rs. 450 lacs in this year. Though these machines are purchased on behalf of the Corporation, their maintenance and utilization is done by the Mechanical Division under the A.D.C.

RLDC is not charging any interest on these advances, nor any rentals on the machinery purchased out of its funds. But, there is an arrangement for amortization as proposed in the World Bank Appraisal Report.

However, the RLDC Board has recently decided to press its claim for depreciation on these machines or some interest on the advances.

#### BANKING PLAN

The banking plan for the projects is also prepared by the RLDC in consultation with the ARDC (and in the Chambal area with the Agricultural Finance Corporation which is a consortium of commercial banks). This banking plan mainly indicates areas which have been allocated to different scheduled commercial banks or their branches. Subsequently, an annual or seasonal financial programme is also discussed with the local or regional representatives of the participating commercial banks, in respect of their particular area.

It may, however, be noted that the cooperative banks have not been entrusted any role or responsibility in these land development operations.

*Reimbursement from the PCBs:* With certificates of work commencement and progress at different stages coming in time, the recoupment of funds from the participating commercial banks (PCBs) in the RCP area has become fairly good. However, in the Chambal Command area the participating commercial banks appear to have lagged behind, perhaps because the beneficiary cultivators in some of the catchments are not satisfied with the quality of work or the availability of water, etc.

There are some other issues involved which mainly relate to the loaning procedures and documents, etc., which the banks are using or are insisting upon. These matters are being discussed with the banks separately. It is also possible that the bank representatives may not be fully convinced of the need and advantage of the

full package of o.f.d. work which has been advocated and prescribed for the Chambal area, where problems of waterlogging and salinity have already made their appearance.

*Advance or Interim Funding:* Under the existing arrangements which were finalized in a meeting at the level of Development Commissioner and Principal Secretary, Agriculture and Allied Departments, on October 21, 1976, in the RCP area, as soon as the financial sanctions for a chak or for a number of chaks have been issued, the RLDC is expected to advance to the ADC an amount equal to 30 per cent of the likely or estimated cost of expenditure. Subsequent instalments are released on reports of 25 per cent physical work completion, 50 per cent of physical work completion and 100 per cent work completion.

On the other hand, reimbursements to the Corporation are made by the participating commercial banks on work commencement and at stages of 25 per cent, 50 per cent, 100 per cent physical completion etc., as indicated below:

Stage	<i>RCP CAD Projects</i>		<i>Chambal Project</i>	
	<i>Interim Advance to ADC (in percentage)</i>	<i>Amount being released by bank (in percentage)</i>	<i>Interim Advance to ADC (in percentage)</i>	<i>Amount being released by bank (in percentage)</i>
1. Issue of financial sanction	30	—	10	—
2. Work commencement	—	20	20	20
3. 25 per cent physical work completion	20	30	20	30
4. 50 per cent physical work completion	25	25	25	25
5. 100 per cent work completion	25	12½	25	12½
6. On submission of final expenditure bills	—	12½	—	12½

*Note:* Arrangements on similar lines have recently been negotiated with banks in the Chambal Area.

These are the stages at which the banks debit the loan amounts to the accounts of the beneficiary cultivators in respect of ordinary

loans and the Corporation directly receives the same to recoup its interim advances. Simultaneously the Corporation also makes necessary debit entries in the special loans account of the unwilling and ineligible cultivators.

*Special Loans Account:* The Government of India, the State Government and the Agricultural Refinance Development Corporation make contribution to a Special Loans Account maintained by the SRDC in the proportion of 2:1:1. A credit of Rs. 240 lacs was thus available at the end of March 1979, out of which RLDC decided to draw about Rs. 116 lacs to cover up its liabilities on account of special loans. This arrangement is different from the World Bank Appraisal Mission recommendation.

*Rate of Interest on Special Loans:* The interest on special loans which is charged from farmers is at present 13 per cent. The RLDC gets the funds from the Special Loans Account through the commercial banks at 11 per cent. The banks get the reimbursement from ARDC at 10 per cent.

In pursuance of a policy decision early in 1979, the rate of interest on ordinary loans chargeable from the cultivators has been reduced by 1 per cent, the reduced rate being  $9\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. But a similar reduction has not been made in case of special loans.

*Government Lands:* About 10-11 per cent of lands being caused in RCP area and 7-8 per cent in Chambal command area are still in the category of unallotted government lands and their development costs have to be recovered from the State Government.

*Limited Sources:* Thus there are many demands on the RLDC funds. Apart from its share capital, the Corporation has no other direct or visible source of income, except the interest which may accrue on the special loans during the course of time. However, the Corporation provides a very useful channel for disbursement of crop compensation in the Chambal command area where beneficiary cultivators may be deprived of their rabi crops due to o.f.d. works and for giving subsidies to the marginal and small farmer @33½ per cent and 25 per cent respectively in both the command areas. The Corporation has so far disbursed Rs. 46.04 lacs as crop compensation in the Chambal area.

The Corporation has also been able to raise loans from the Government of India under a scheme for construction of water-courses and field channels. A sum of Rs. 25 lacs each was received during 1976-77 and 1977-78, while a sum of Rs. 250 lacs became available towards the close of the last financial year.

## SUMMING UP

It is clear from the foregoing account that the Corporation has not only lived up to its original expectation but has really acted as a catalytic agency. It has helped in overcoming a number of procedural issues, thus contributing towards the initiation of a fairly difficult and sophisticated programme. In the achievements made so far both in physical terms and in respect of financial commitments, the Corporation has played a significant role.

In RCP area nearly 50 per cent of the original targets have been realized and almost the entire ground work done for the early completion of the left-over target as and when the supply of coal and cement (essential for tile-making and lining work) improves. The Area Development Commissioner's work has been facilitated by the advance of nearly Rs. 14 crores as interim finance to cover actual expenditure of the same extent. Against this ordinary loans actually released to about 18,000 cultivators cover an amount of Rs. 7 crores which amount has been recouped by the Corporation, while Rs. 50 lacs is due as on today. Special loans have been given to the tune of Rs. 2 crores and an expenditure of Rs. 1.50 crores approximately has been made in respect of government land. ADC has utilized an advance of nearly Rs. 50 lacs for purchase of vehicles and other equipment.

In the Chambal area, advances for purchase of machinery including units for land development have come to Rs. 1.94 crores, while interim advance for o.f.d. works have been to the tune of Rs. 95.6 lacs. Special loans of Rs. 76.14 lacs have been released to about 1,310 cultivators.

Advances have also been made to the respective Superintending Engineers for Gang and North-West Bhakra command areas.

All these efforts have been made with a comparatively much less burden on the budgetary resources of the two Governments. To cap it all, free services have been rendered to the cultivators in getting them loans from the banks and to arrange for their subsidy or compensation and bring the finances as well as technical services to their very doorsteps, and so on, or the assistance given to the commercial banks and even to the Project authorities except for  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent evaluation fee on sanctioned loans to be realized only once.

Having been a humble and non-demanding back-stage partner in progress over the past 5 years' span, the Corporation is poised to face the future with confidence.

## Notes and References

1. For details about the working of RLDC in the field work see Bhupendra Hooja, "Rajasthan Land Development Corporation and its Involvement in the Chambal and RCP Command Area Development Programmes", *Financing Agriculture*, October 1979 to March 1980.
2. Land Development Corporations have been set up in the States of Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Gujarat and Haryana. Of these only the Rajasthan Land Development Corporation and the Madhya Pradesh Land Development Corporation are statutory bodies. In Haryana, another Corporation, the Haryana State Minor Irrigation and Tubewell Corporation, is mainly involved in the lining of watercourses.
3. From Appraisal Report: Rajasthan Canal Command Area Development Project (430-Ind) and Appraisal Report: Chambal Command Area Development Project (1011-Ind) International Bank of Reconstruction and Development and International Development Association, Washington, 1974.
4. Appraisal Report: Rajasthan Canal Command Area, Development Project, *op. cit.*
5. Development of Rajasthan Canal Command Area, Project Report, Agriculture Department (Special Schemes), Rajasthan Secretariat, Jaipur, May, 1971.
6. Development of Rajasthan Canal Command Area, Project Report issued from Agriculture Department (Special Schemes), May, 1971.
7. Development of Rajasthan Canal Command Area, Project Report, May, 1971.
8. The Report of World Bank Appraisal Mission mentions the following constraints:
  - (a) Lack of land levelling of the high dune areas and lack of land reclamation of some of the tal soils;
  - (b) The absence of lined watercourses, which reduces water availability and limits the introduction of a rational water management system;

- (c) Lack of canal lining in the branch, distributary, and minor canal network which causes high conveyance losses;
  - (d) An inadequate road network, resulting in high transport costs and a hindering of permanent settlement in Block A;
  - (e) An extension service which is only partly effective, due to organizational problems and a lack of training;
  - (f) Lack of adequate stabilization works and measures to control wind-blown sand, causing high maintenance costs for canals and roads and hindering farming operations;
  - (g) Shortage of essential inputs, mainly fertilizers; and
  - (h) Insufficient coordination between the Government agencies responsible for the various services to agriculture.
- (For purpose of this write-up concerning the role of RLDC, we are concerned only with the first two constraints.)

9. Appraisal of the Chambal Command Area Development Project (Rajasthan) in India, *op. cit.*
10. Popularly referred to as the "Green Book".
11. World Bank Appraisal Report: Chambal Command Area, *op. cit.*
12. *Ibid.*
13. *Ibid.*
14. Annexure 8—Chambal Command Area Appraisal Report.
15. Annexure 7 in case of Chambal Command Area Development Project Appraisal Report and Annexure 9 in case of RCP Command Area Project Appraisal Report.
16. Annexure 7 of Chambal Command Area Project Appraisal Report. Later on names of land development banks were excluded.
17. Annexure 7 of Chambal Command Area Development Project Appraisal Report.
18. *Ibid.*
19. Annexure 8 of Chambal Command Area Development Project Appraisal Report.
20. Annexure 8—Chambal Project Appraisal Report.
21. *Ibid.*
22. Annexure 8—Chambal Command Area Development Project Appraisal Report, 1974.
23. The RLDC Act replaced the earlier Ordinance and received the assent of the President on March 29, 1975, and published in *Rajasthan Gazette* 4(a) dated March 29, 1975.
24. Weaker section has been defined as economically or socially

backward or neglected section of the land-holder. No one has been nominated from RCP area as yet.

25. For Officers of the IAS, two in the Selection Grade and two in the Super Time Scale have occupied this office since the beginning.
26.
  1. Rajasthan Land Development Corporation Rules, 1977.
  2. Rajasthan Land Development Regulations, 1976-78.
  3. RLDC (Special Loan) Regulations, 1978.
  4. RLDC Crop Compensation Guidelines, 1977.
  5. RLDC Subsidy Guidelines, 1977.
27. Directors' Report and Statement of Accounts for the period ending June 30, 1975.

## 4

# Antyodaya: An Action Plan for the Poorest of the Rural Poor

M.L. Mehta

POONARAM, aged 24 years, is a member of the Scheduled Caste. Due to his poverty, he was selected as one of the poorest persons by the Village Assembly according to a scheme named *Antyodaya*. He got a loan of Rs. 1,000 from a bank for leather work and is able to earn on an average Rs. 7 per day. He got a subsidy of 33 per cent on the loan amount. The loan bears an interest of 4 per cent per annum. Earlier he was borrowing money from private sources at a high rate of interest of 15 to 24 per cent per annum.

Lakma Raghunath is of 60 years age and owns 15 bighas of unirrigated land which yielded him in the recent drought year an income of only Rs. 120. His wife has been ailing for the last three years. For his livelihood, he sells, in the neighbouring town and villages, headload of wooden sticks cut from the nearby forest. Though selected under the Antyodaya programme, he is very much afraid of the harshness of the procedure for recovery of the loans by the Government officials and is not willing to take any loan assistance from the banks or the Government despite all the persuasion.

Badia Meghwal (35 years) with a family of 6 persons has neither any land nor any cattle. He, however, owns a *kulcha* house. After his selection he desired to take up the work of goat-rearing and was given a loan of Rs. 1,800 by the bank for purchase of 18 goats six months ago. Even after selling five goats for Rs. 275 he now has 24 goats. He has been paying loan instalments regularly from the money earned from sale of goat milk. He never received any assistance in the past either from the bank or from the Government.



Like Badia Meghwal, Pukha Ram Meena (40 years) also went in for-goat rearing. He has eight bighas of unirrigated agricultural land which gives him an annual income of Rs. 500. For meeting his personal needs he had taken a loan of Rs. 500 from a money-lender to whom he was paying 24 per cent interest per annum. Under the Antyodaya programme, he received a loan of Rs. 1,800 and purchased 18 goats. After first littering in six months, he was able to generate an extra income of Rs. 200 by selling four goats besides the daily income of Rs. 4 received from sale of milk. Prior to this loaning he also did not obtain any assistance either from the bank or from the Government.

Chuna Sargava is 50 years of age, and has three children to support besides his wife. He does not possess any land or cattle. He was given an assistance of Rs. 3,300 under the programme for purchase of a bullock cart. In less than a year, he has been able to repay Rs. 450 to the bank. His daily income derived from hiring charges ranges from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15. Like most of the people in this category, he also did not receive any loan from any source before.

Kera Kumhar, aged 50 years, has 15 bighas of land and one cow. He purchased a bullock cart and a pair of oxen from out of the loan he received and has repaid instalment money of Rs. 580. Earlier he was working as a labourer but now with his newly acquired status, he is reluctant to work as a labourer.

Dhanna is aged 70 years and has a wife who is invalid. He had no asset of either the land or the cattle and begged for food. After his selection under the programme both he and his wife have been jointly sanctioned the social security benefit of Rs. 60 per month which they are getting regularly.

Narsa Vagaji, aged 50 years, was allotted land resumed from a landholder under the ceiling law but did not take its possession on account of the fear of the ex-landholder who had threatened him with dire consequences. After his selection under the programme, he got a loan of Rs. 3,600 for purchase of a pair of oxen and a bullock cart. He was, however, duped by someone who sold his useless oxen to him. Narsa has not been able to pay his due instalments of the loan.

Tulsi is a widow and has a child aged 12 years. She has four bighas of land which she gives on share-cropping. She has steadfastly refused to take any assistance from the Government under the programme. When pressed hard by the Sarpanch and local officials, she

said that she would prefer to leave the village rather than take any loan from the Government or the bank.

There are some of the cases which are taken from a study of Antyodaya families in Pali district. They typify the genesis, the achievement and pitfalls of the programme for the uplift of the poorest in a village.

#### GENESIS OF THE PROGRAMME

It is common experience of all developing societies that their development process is touching the poor only on the fringe. The economic inequalities in these societies have become more pronounced. According to Gunnar Myrdal, "Most of the benefits from these policies do not reach the poor, even if such is the proclaimed aim and motivation. The benefits accrue instead to the strata above them. More generally the policies pursued have nowhere (except possibly in Ceylon) led to greater economic equality and a lessening of concentration of economic power."<sup>1</sup> Due to increasing pressure on land, low productivity and lack of access to the credit system, there has been increasing pauperisation of the poor. Experience of the South Asia, Latin America and South East Asia, with swelling ranks of those below the poverty line, proves this. While reviewing the socio-economic situation in the country at the time of launching the Fourth Five Year Plan, the Planning Commission remarked, "Available information does not indicate any trend towards reduction in the concentration of income and wealth. Nor is there any indication that there has been any lessening of disparity in the standards of living of various classes. There is also the complaint that even in institutions like Cooperatives, which are fashioned to promote socio-economic democracy, the propertied classes and the rich dominate."<sup>2</sup>

There has been considerable difference of opinion among researchers regarding measurement of poverty and drawing a poverty line. But all of them are unanimous in their assertion that majority of the rural population suffer from want and destitution. Pitambar Pant takes a consumption expenditure standard of Rs. 20 per month which he considers generally to be bare minimum and declares that half of people in India live in abject poverty.<sup>3</sup> Bardhan takes the poverty level at per capita consumption level of Rs. 15 per month for rural and Rs. 18 per month for urban areas. Rath and Dandekar have drawn the poverty line at a consumption level of

Rs. 15 per month per capita for rural and Rs. 22.50 for urban areas. Minhas has taken the poverty line of Pitamber Pant. According to Minhas, 50.6 per cent people in rural India were living below the poverty line in 1967-68 and their number which almost remained unchanged since 1956-57, was 215 million.<sup>4</sup> Majority of the rural poor belong to categories of landless and agricultural labour, artisans, other rural households not owning land, marginal farmers and small farmers. These people "suffer because they have little access to technology and services and because the institutions which would sustain a higher level of productivity are lacking. In many cases vested interests operate to ensure that not only the benefits of productive activity are distributed inequitably, but that poor are denied access to the inputs, services and organization which would allow them to increase the productivity."<sup>5</sup>

There has been increasing awareness in India about the poverty trap in which poor, particularly those living in rural areas, find themselves. Since the economic inequality reinforces social inequality, their plight becomes worse. Since the poor are objects of politics, they are never its subject; attempts to improve their lot have been sporadic and even lackadaisical. It is only after the Venkappaiah report in 1969-70 that a special programme for economic uplift of small farmers, marginal farmers and agricultural labour was drawn up and special agencies were set up in some districts. These agencies function as registered societies and are responsible for providing investment subsidy on loans arranged from banks as also for taking up other development programmes for small farmers, etc.

The Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) and the Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labour (MFAL) approach took within its embrace, at one go, over 60 per cent of rural population who fall in the small and marginal farmers and agricultural labour category. In a programme of assured investment covering such a large segment of population, more benefits invariably accrue to the better off sections of this target group. Available benefits also get thinly distributed. When the weak and not so weak compete for the same resource, the not so weak invariably succeed in grabbing it. Benefits of SFDA projects have mostly gone to the small farmers by showing smaller area in their holdings through division of their holdings. An evaluation study of these projects reveals that little attention has been paid to the identification of agricultural labourers. In nearly one-fifth MFALs not more than 5 per cent of total agricultural

labourers in the area had been identified and in another one-fourth, the percentage of the agricultural labourers identified ranged between 11-15. In some project areas this group was not identified at all.<sup>6</sup>

The SFDA projects remain confined to only 200 districts in the country. Poor families of small and marginal farmers and landless labourers living in the remaining 199 districts of the country are naturally discriminated against. Even after the launching of the Integrated Rural Development Programme only about 3,000 blocks out of the total number of 5,004 Community Development Blocks in the country are covered by the subsidy programme for this category of persons. The SFDA programme including the IRD Programme has uneven coverage and completely excludes the poorest of the poor living in 40 per cent Community Development Blocks in the country which form non-project areas. In these programmes, gradually, the economic viability became the main criterion for assistance rather than the real need of the individual poor family. Those who were at the lowest point of the poverty ladder did not succeed in getting attention of the project authorities. Earlier approach also suffered from the defect that artisans and non-agricultural landless labourers were excluded from its purview. So were those who could not earn their living on account of physical incapacity caused by old age or infirmity to undertake any economic activity. Possession of land in rural society does confer a status on small and marginal farmers owning land which is certainly better than the status of artisans who eke out a very difficult existence due to their heavy indebtedness, diminishing demand for their skills, and inadequacy of market arrangements for disposal of the goods they produce. Though there was an organizational innovation in the SFDA approach in the form of entrusting the task of development of small farmers, etc., to a registered society to which funds flowed directly from the Centre, the basic approach, however, remained fragmented and the poorest of the poor did not benefit in a significant way from the scheme. The new scheme of Integrated Rural Development has so far broadly followed SFDA strategy with some minor variations in its approach.

The experiment launched in Rajasthan in October 1977, using the term *Antyodaya*, makes a radical departure from the SFDA approach. It aims at focussing attention of the programme administration on a very small denominator of the rural poor at one time. A small group of families are selected from amongst those who are

at the lowest point of the economic ladder in the village. This scheme is wider in scope as it has within its fold programmes for development of poor families belonging to the category of artisans, landless labourers, non-agricultural poor and old and infirm persons. It aims at moving "upward" the poorest of the poor by making provision for economic assistance. The programme takes note of the fact that rural poor are stratified both socially as well as economically.

#### LAUNCHING OF THE PROGRAMME

Antyodaya literally means development of the last man in the row. Though Gandhiji considered Antyodaya as the first step towards Sarvodaya, no efforts were made to translate the concept of Antyodaya into an action programme for the poor. While many thinkers and social reformers devoted their energies for spreading of the Sarvodaya movement, the concept of Antyodaya was hardly talked about till Rajasthan launched its experiment on Antyodaya. The programme had its origin in the realization that certain earmarking of State assistance for the poorest was necessary so that at least a minimum level of investment is assured to them. It was thought that one way to meet this objective would be to ask the cooperative institutions to earmark a percentage of their credit for the poor. This posed no problem. This would have benefited only poor farmers. The problems of other poor would have still remained. Another problem was of identifying the poorest and then chalking out a programme to suit their requirements. The programme content depended on the socio-economic background of the poor identified.

A number of approaches were considered for identification of poor families. Since the reciprocal obligations work in a big way in the village society, it was contended that if the selection was left to the Panchayats, genuine poor would not be selected. The other view was that the identification if left to the village or block officials would also lead to improper selection. After considerable discussions it was decided to entrust this work to the Gram Sabha (Village Council) which is more representative than the Panchayat. It was thought that there would be lesser chances of manipulation in selection if it was done in the open meeting of the village assembly. Our subsequent experience fully vindicated this faith in the village assemblies. In order to ensure that only poorest of the poor families get

identified by the villagers, an economic criterion of poverty was also prescribed for selection. Another important point to be decided was about the number of families to be selected every year under the programme. Almost in an *ad hoc* manner, it was decided to identify five poor families in every village of the State in one round. The concept of five has a time-honoured place in Indian thinking like in *Pancha Parmeshwar Pancha Shila* and *Panj Piara* and this seemed to be at the back of our mind in deciding on selection of five poor families in every village. In the second year of the programme this was, however, changed and the selection of families was made dependent on the population size of the village.

#### ARRIVING AT PROGRAMME CONTENT—PILOT SURVEY OF 125 POOR FAMILIES IN FIVE DISTRICTS

Since the programme planners did not have any first-hand experience of the problems of the rural poor, their handicaps and aspirations, an experience session was first held with few families of rural poor in Andhi village of Jaipur district. This was a probing session at person to person level and was found very rewarding. During the session, initially we faced only blank stares and an attitude of stoic indifference and complete resignation. Occasionally we were, however, put off by their dry smiles. But gradually the crust was broken and we could get them out from their shell. For the author, this would ever remain an unforgettable experience. Views of the villagers were also ascertained about the economic programme which could be drawn up for the poor families. Inclusion of some of the items for which assistance is presently available under the programme can be attributed to this experience session. Typical of our experience in this regard was in devising an assistance programme for a Muslim widow named Subhan who was physically very weak and aged 50 years and had three children in the age group of 8 to 13 years. She had no land or any other economic asset and was living in a dilapidated hut. She could not learn any skill or craft at her age. There was no land in the village for allotment to her and even if any land was allotted, she could not have put it under cultivation. Since it was a dairy village, we suggested giving loan for purchase of a buffalo or cow. On hearing this, the villagers had a hearty laugh. We were surprised on being asked about the reason for their reacting in this manner; they told us that theft of cattle in their village

was a very common thing and that in their view Subhan would be ruined if her cattle purchased with the bank loan was stolen. Besides, she had no land for growing fodder and purchase of the entire requirement of fodder for the cattle from the market was beyond her means. They suggested that instead she be given a few she-goats. She-goats litter quickly and their feeding poses no problem. Her children would be able to look after them. This suggestion was accepted. Till then we did not want to include this item in the assistance programme on ecological considerations. This item was, however, subsequently included and has proved to be very attractive with the poor.

Encouraged by our experience with the poor families of Andhi village, we decided to conduct a random survey for determining poverty profile of 125 families in 25 villages of five districts. The districts selected covered all the ecological regions of the State. A detailed questionnaire was drawn up for collecting data about family size, economic assets held, educational background, occupational experience, indebtedness, etc., for the identified poor families. Information about infrastructure available in the survey villages was also collected. After the analysis of the data obtained in this survey, a detailed programme of assistance was drawn up for meeting the requirements of the poor families. It covered varied activities. There are over 50 activities in the programme for which assistance is given. Diverse types of vocation providing self-employment in the rural areas were included in the assistance programme. Looking to the varied socio-economic background and occupational experience of the poor families, programme content was kept flexible and was revised from time to time.

#### PROGRAMME ADMINISTRATION

At the State level, the administration of the programme has been entrusted to the Special Schemes Organization in the Agriculture Department which deals with the programme for development of small and marginal farmers and landless labourers, development of desert and drought-prone areas, and has also developed experience in project formulation. At the district level, Collectors have been entrusted with the task of implementing the programme. They function through the District Development Agency or the Small Farmers Development Agency.

The State Level Apex Policy Committee on Antyodaya was being presided over by the Chief Minister and had some Cabinet members and MLAs besides representatives of voluntary agencies and senior departmental officers as members. This Committee laid down policies and approved strategies for implementing the programme. Then there is a Committee on Direction headed by the Chief Secretary which reviews the progress of the programme from time to time. At the district level, there is a Committee headed by the Collector and consisting of both officials and non-officials as members.

### SOME DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF THE ANTYODAYA PROGRAMME

The Antyodaya programme focusses attention on the poorest amongst the poor in the rural community. Unlike the case of SFDA, in the Antyodaya programme only a small segment of the rural poor who are at the lowest point of the poverty ladder are selected at one time and the selection then moves upward year after year. Rather than rely on the trickle effect of development, it aims at traversing a path of development from poorest of the poor upward.

Following are some distinct features of the Antyodaya programme:

(1) In the first year of the operation of the scheme five poorest of the poor families were selected from every village. In the second phase, however, the selection of the families has been made dependent on the population size of the village—three families from villages having a population of 500 persons, five families from those of the villages in the population range of 500-1000 and seven families from villages having a population of 1000 to 1999 and 10 families from those in the population range of 2000 and above. All these families, however, have to satisfy the economic criterion laid down for their identification. In the first round, not a single poor family was found in 1,230 villages. The number of such villages in the second phase increased to 2,887.

(2) In order to ensure that only really poor are selected under the scheme for assistance, following economic criteria have been prescribed for their identification as Antyodayees:

(a) First priority is given to those families who do not hold any economic asset of land or cattle, do not possess any permanent source of income and no member of the family in the age group



15-59 years is capable of any economic activity. This category covers infirm and old people who are provided with the social security benefits.

(b) The second priority is accorded to those families who do not have any land or cattle but there are one or two persons in the family earning less than Rs. 1,200 for a family of five persons. Generally landless and rural artisans fall in this category.

(c) Families having some land or cattle or both but having a per capita annual income ranging from Rs. 240 to Rs. 360 are assigned the third priority.

(3) Identification which is crucial to the success of the scheme has involvement of the entire village community. The selection is done in the open village council and is then tested with economic criterion of poverty laid down so that those not fulfilling the criterion are dropped.

(4) Instead of adopting a caste criterion of economic and social deprivation, it adopts a purely economic criterion for selection of the poor families in the Antyodaya category. This has allowed poor families amongst even Muslims, Christians, Rajputs, Brahmins, Jains, etc., to benefit from the programme. However, 58 per cent of those selected belong to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

(5) The programme has an even spread among various regions and covered all the 33,000 villages of the State. Thus poor families are receiving economic benefits throughout Rajasthan under this programme on a uniform basis in terms of quantum of subsidy, cheaper credit, social security benefits, etc. This is in sharp contrast to the SFDA scheme which covered only six districts out of the 26 districts of the State. Even the IRD programme covered only 112 Community Development Blocks of a total 235 Community Development Blocks in the State.

(6) Artisans and unemployed wanting to start some vocation on their own also receive subsidized investment and are treated at par with those who are agricultural labourers, marginal farmers and small farmers. In the earlier anti-poverty programmes, like the SFDA programme, such groups were excluded.

(7) Attention of those implementing the programme is focussed on identified poor families individually and not on the poor as an abstract group. Individual well-being and development of these families becomes the measure of success of the programme.

According to the Evaluation Study of the programme done by the Planning Commission, "There are four features of the Antyodaya

approach to rural development which deserve special emphasis. First, under this approach poverty does not remain a statistical abstraction. The poor families are identified as a concrete human reality. Second, emphasis is given to the delivery of productive assets so that the poor family begins to get regular income from self-employment. Third, the administration goes out, identifies and assists the poor people, instead of waiting for people to come for assistance. Fourth, the criterion of identification is strictly economic—income below the poverty lines. All these features are obviously commendable and represent important departure from past practice.”<sup>7</sup>

#### PROGRESS ACHIEVED

The Antyodaya programme was launched on October 2, 1977. In the first round of selection 1.54 lac families were identified. In the second round done in November 1979, 1.11 lac families were identified. Assistance has been provided to the identified families in the following manner.<sup>8</sup>

**Table 4.1**

<i>Type of assistance given</i>	<i>No. of families benefited</i>		<i>Total No. of families benefited</i>
	<i>I round</i>	<i>II round</i>	
1. Old age and infirm pension	24,300(19.00)*	22,891(27.34)	47,191(22.30)
2. Allotment of land	44,397(34.71)	17,116(20.44)	61,513(22.06)
3. Employment	7,061( 5.52)	5,013( 5.98)	12,074( 5.70)
4. Credit coverage:			
(a) Loan disbursed	48,041(37.57)	37,152(44.37)	95,193(40.25)
(b) Loans sanctioned but not yet disbursed**	13,061	10,671	23,732
5. Others	4,095( 3.20)	1,548( 1.84)	5,643( 2.66)
Total number of families benefited***	127,894	83,720	211,614
Total number of families identified	154,328	111,176	265,504

Percentage of total number of families benefited to total families identified	82.87	75.30	79.73
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*Note:* \* Figures in the brackets denote percentage of the benefited families in a particular way to the total families benefited.

\*\* Not included in the number of families benefited.

\*\*\* These numbers relate to the existing families on the Antyodaya roll as on January 31, 1980, and do not include families selected but subsequently deleted due to their wrong selection or death of the householder in a single member households.

In terms of loan amounts sanctioned and disbursed, the position as on December 31, 1979, was as follows:

Table 4.2

(Rs. in crores)

	<i>I round</i>	<i>II round</i>	<i>Total</i>
1. Total loan amounts sanctioned	14.36	11.65	26.01
2. Loan amounts disbursed	9.01	7.20	16.21
3. Loan amounts not yet disbursed	5.35	4.45	9.80

From the figures given in Table 4.2, following conclusions can be drawn about the progress achieved in implementing the Antyodaya Programme in Rajasthan:

(1) Looking to the difficult problems of logistics and new path-breaking nature of the programme, it is commendable that out of 2.65 lac identified families some form of assistance has been made available to 2.11 lac families. Loans amounting to Rs. 16.21 crores have been disbursed to them through the banks along with investment subsidy varying from 25 per cent to 33 per cent. The rate of interest varied from 4 per cent to 11 per cent per annum. That over 2 lac poorest of the poor families living in even remote areas were personally reached and were delivered economic assistance in about two years time speaks volumes for the efforts made by the programme administration in implementing the programme.

(2) As against 24,300 families (19 per cent) provided with social security benefits in the first round, 17,116 families (27.34 per cent) received such benefits in the second round. It is expected that in the third round, the number of families to be benefited by social security measures would decline significantly.

(3) Despite persistent demand for allotment of land, only 20.44 per cent of those benefiting in the second round could be allotted land as against 34.71 per cent getting land in the first round. Due to only marginal and sub-marginal lands being left for allotment, shares of this form of assistance in the assistance package in coming years would be further reduced.

(4) Only 5.70 per cent of those benefited were provided with regular wage employment. This is an area where a lot more could be done.

(5) Loan assistance was made available to 85,193 families. They constitute 40.25 per cent of the total number of families benefited. There are, however, 23,732 families who have not received their sanctioned loans so far from the banks. Surprisingly, 13,061 families out of this group are those selected in the first round. The waiting time for these families for obtaining assistance under the programme has exceeded two years and here lies the biggest danger of the programme. Once the programme administration starts judging the success of the programme only by the percentage achievement, the danger of statistical abstraction creeps in and Antyodaya approach of focussing attention individually on the poor families is overlooked. It is rather surprising that 37.26 per cent of the families who were sanctioned credit by the banks in the first round and 38.20 per cent of those sanctioned in the second round are yet to be disbursed loans.

(6) 26,434 families selected in October 1977 and 27,448 families selected in November 1978 have not received any economic assistance so far. They form 17.13 per cent and 24.70 per cent of the families identified in the first and second rounds respectively. One can only imagine their frustration due to non-receipt of any benefits whatsoever, after the high hopes of bright morrow generated in them.

(7) Out of Rs. 26.01 crores sanctioned, only 16.21 crores (62.32 per cent) has been disbursed. Sanctioned loans amounting to Rs. 9.80 crores—Rs. 5.35 crores for the first round and Rs. 4.45 crores for the second round—covering 23,732 families are yet to be disbursed.

## PERSPECTIVE PLAN OF ACTION

The elected State Government which existed till February 1980 had drawn up a perspective plan of action for implementation during the period 1977-82. This Plan<sup>9</sup> envisaged a coverage of 6.96 lac families during the five-year period. The assistance coverage projected was as follows:

Table 4.3

<i>Number of families to be covered</i>	
1. Old age/infirm pension	40,700
2. Land allotment	43,900
3. Credit facilities	289,000
4. Regular self/wage employment:	
—Khadi Industries	85,000
—Village Industries	25,000
—Small Scale & Tiny Industries Sector	17,000
—Regular Employment Govt./Private	4,500
—Wage Employment on Public Works	66,153
5. Others	34,647
6. Total families to be covered	606,000

The financial requirement of Rs. 178.54 crores had been projected. Out of this Rs. 117.01 crores would come from the financial institutions and banks and Rs. 61.53 crores would be provided by the State Government, major share of Rs. 38.73 crores being of investment subsidy. The experience of the working of the scheme for over last two years had shown that these projections were realistic. It could be possible to bring in projected level of institutional finance for the identified poor families. The main problems would be only of logistics and organization as economic welfare of each poor family under the Antyodaya scheme is a project by itself. Rapidly increasing number of families on the assistance list and their varying problems continuously increasing in complexity and range would pose a formidable challenge to the programme administration which would need considerable strengthening. It would be necessary for a popularly elected government to evolve structures of more decentralized functioning. Provision of technical know-how, raising of skills

and marketing support would be other areas which should engage attention of the programme administration right from now.

#### A CRITIQUE

Due to the success achieved so far in implementing the programme, the word "Antyodaya" has occupied a significant place in the current lexicon of the rural development programmes. The States of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Gujarat and Orissa followed the lead taken by Rajasthan in launching this programme. A momentum had also grown around the programme, as had happened in the case of the 20-point New Economic Programme. There is no doubt that it is a significant experiment in the anti-poverty programme launched in the country. Innovative features of the programme are involvement of the entire village community in identifying the poor families for assistance, inclusion of poor artisans and non-agricultural labour as also old and infirm in the assistance programme, adoption of an economic criterion of poverty rather than that of caste, focussing of attention on over 1 lac identified families individually at one time and observing flexible approach in devising assistance package for identified families. The emphasis is on the individual poor families identified rather than on the poor as a group. The programme planners did well in not following the omnibus approach of the SFDA and MFAL programmes and were thereby able to bring out an entirely new programme.

One of the most significant achievements of the programme has been in raising the aspiration levels of identified families. These families have become the focus of all government activities in this regard. Their status and credit-worthiness has gone up. According to the Planning Commission Evaluation Study, "The Rajasthan Government has no doubt created general awareness amongst the poor in the villages regarding the basic concept of Antyodaya Programme and they look forward to a wide range of employment opportunities through which means of livelihood would be available. Apart from providing gainful employment or an economic activity to the beneficiaries of this programme, it has also helped in raising their status and credit-worthiness in the village."<sup>10</sup> An access to the credit system has been established for many of them and our own field observations have shown that some of them have already gone in for a second loan or are in need of it. In Sawa village of

Chittorgarh district, the author came across an Antyodayee who was advanced a loan of Rs. 500 for purchase of a push cart which he needed for carrying vegetables for sale in neighbouring villages. He was paying his instalments regularly and sought assistance for obtaining a second loan of Rs. 1,000. On being asked the purpose of the second loan, he informed that he needed this loan for purchase of a sewing machine as well as for purchase of cut pieces of cloth so that his wife could stitch garments at home which he could sell in villages. In less than a year, this Antyodayee was talking in the language of a first generation entrepreneur trying to diversify his trade and was thinking of selling value-added items. Another Antyodayee in the same village purchased four old rickety cycles from out of the loan of Rs. 590 he obtained from the bank and by using his skill, repaired them and put them out on hire. He also brought some spare parts for sale. By the time of the author's visit, he was able to add one new cycle from out of his surplus income. He also needed a second loan from bank and wanted the author to help him in obtaining tyres and tubes at controlled prices. He offered to give even advance money for this purpose. These examples could be multiplied many times. In our view the biggest achievement of the programme has been kindling a new hope of better life in the minds of the identified families and in raising their confidence levels. The poor face innumerable handicaps which are social, cultural, economic and even psychological. The programme administration will have to nurse these families with tender care for few years lest many of them relapse into their earliest stage of frustration.

Provision of after-care services is very crucial to the success of the programme. Unfortunately this aspect has not yet received enough attention. It is only recently that a duty has been cast on the teachers living in rural areas to visit these families periodically and to send their reports to the Vikas Adhikari who would arrange the follow-up. In view of their low motivation, low assets and low risk-taking capacity with hardly anything to fall back upon, the provision of after-care services for Antyodayees becomes very important. With each round of selection, ranks of Antyodayees would swell. The requirements and problems of First Round Antyodayees would be very different from those of the Second Round Antyodayees and so on.

An administration burdened with multifarious duties at the State, district and block level would find it very difficult to cope

up with this increasing burden. After each year's selection, the administration would devote its entire attention on provision of assistance to the new Antyodayees. It would be a pity if old Antyodayees are left to fend for themselves, despite their increasing requirements of credit, market support, etc. Any programme for their economic development will have to be long drawn. It cannot be one shot affair. If not cared by the programme administration after the initial assistance, their condition would be like school dropouts who relapse into their earlier state of illiteracy. How real is the danger of the administration not paying enough attention to the requirements of old Antyodayees when it has new Antyodayees at hand to cater can be seen from the fact that after the second round of selection 27,119 families were sanctioned loans during the period from December 1978 to January 1980. Of them 87.41 per cent belonged to the second round and only 12.59 per cent to the first round. In November 1978, there were 29,122 families of the first round who were not given any assistance. Out of these only 2,648 families were assisted during the next 14 months while during the same period 44,166 families of the second round were assisted. Obviously the first round Antyodayees seem to be going out of focus with the coming in of the second round Antyodayees. The unhealthy development is rooted in the way the Government machinery functions and corrective steps have to be taken. As the earlier round Antyodayees start making use of the productive assets given, their requirements of technical know-how, credit and services increase and these should be catered for by the programme administration.

There is a considerable time lag between allotment of land and putting it to productive use. Most of the allotted lands are inferior and require investment for development. The provision of assistance for land development should be made compulsory wherever an Antyodayee family is assisted by way of allotment of land. Certain amount of grant should be invariably given to such families for land development. After the allotment, presently, the beneficiary is left to fend for himself. It would be useful if the Primary Agricultural Credit Societies take the responsibility of guiding these families for putting the land to productive use and of meeting their entire farm credit requirements. The Cooperative Department should have their own Antyodaya Plan prepared for these families. The short term and medium term requirements of these families must be made



first charge of the credit provided by the Primary Agricultural Credit Societies.

The emphasis in the programme has been on providing land or credit. The credit is made available both for farm development as well as for taking up self-employment schemes. No special arrangements have been made for provision of technical know-how in production, management and marketing. The Planning Commission's Evaluation Study also brings out this aspect of the programme. It remarks, "The beneficiaries were left at the mercy of the normal departmental functionaries for this purpose (provision of technical know-how in management, production and marketing) who were sparsely located in the rural areas. It appeared that the district authorities had been concerned mainly with identifying these families for enlisting in the programme. After the release of finances, the beneficiaries were left to struggle on their own." It would be useful if various Departments prepare their own plan of providing technical guidance to the Antyodayees. Most of the Departments have their own field agencies for implementing such a plan. Today various Departments are not actively involved in the programme. The burden is on only District Collector, DDA/SFDA/MFAL officials and Panchayat Samiti (Development block) officials.

Emphasis has so far been on the individual beneficiary schemes. Taking up of various schemes of self-employment like provision of camel-cart, bullock-cart, flour mill, bamboo work, bidi-making, pan shop, wayside tea shop, shoe-making, tailoring, etc., in the rural areas has certain limitations. The informal market in rural areas cannot possibly absorb the entire output of those taking up these schemes year after year. As more Chunas and Keras mentioned earlier get camel-carts, there would be difficulty of their hiring. As more Badias and Pukhas go in for goat-rearing there would be problem of their disposal. There is need for market surveys of demand for services and then assisting Antyodayees for providing those services. There are problems of low level of existing skills, availability of raw material and marketing. There should be a special programme for raising the skill level of Antyodayee persons engaged in various vocations. They can also be taught skills for taking up other vocations if they so feel. Hardly anything has been done in this regard so far. There is need for building up infrastructure in marketing for disposal of some of the products Antyodayees make or can make. Already centralized marketing exists for the dairy in-

dustry. A beginning has also been made for purchase of sheep, goats and wool, with the setting up of a State Level Apex Federation for this purpose. The Federation has however yet to organize itself in an effective manner. Many of the Antyodayees are engaged in leather work. Setting up of a Leather Corporation for supply of technical know-how, raw materials and for making marketing arrangements would be of considerable help. Rajasthan is a major producer of hides and skins. In selected districts one can think of setting up industrial estates for leather work.

Similar arrangements are also necessary in the field of handicrafts. Rajasthan is known for its beautiful handicrafts. In the absence of proper marketing arrangements, it has not been able to exploit available demand fully. Many Antyodayees can find gainful employment in making of carpets. Rajasthan produces about 40 per cent of the wool produced in the country. Carpet-making by trained Antyodayees with adequate marketing tie-up can lead to substantial increase in incomes of these families. There is thus need for identifying skills which can be taught to the Antyodaya families and for providing marketing for their products.

All anti-poverty programmes launched in the country since independence, including the Antyodaya programme, have suffered from want of support of the poor themselves. The poor are taking the assistance given to them as an act of benevolence on the part of the aid-giving agency and not as a matter of their right. Some like Lakma Raghunath and Tulsi quoted earlier are afraid of taking such an assistance. Poor are atomised and cannot therefore make their voices heard. Unless they organize themselves to press for their rights as also for redressal of their genuine grievances including economic backwardness caused by centuries of oppression and exploitation, their lot would not significantly improve. Poor must be made conscious of their objective conditions, their handicaps and their strength. No effort has been made to organize Antyodaya families for any group action. It would be useful if District Unions of Antyodaya Families are organized with the Government providing managerial subsidy to these unions. One can also think of having block level unions. These unions could remain in touch with the individual Antyodaya families and work as catalytic agent for redressal of their grievances. They may also help the programme administration in provision of after-care services and in follow-up.

There is considerable time lag between identification and

delivery of the assistance. As mentioned earlier, over 26,000 families selected in October 1977 have not received any economic assistance even after two years. There has been considerable time lag even for those who have received the assistance. Only in case of land allotment and social security benefit there has been no time lag as this work is done during same campaign in which the identification of the Antyodayees takes place. With each round of new selections this time lag for assistance for some of the earlier Antyodayees is bound to increase with persons selected earlier not receiving enough attention of those responsible for implementing the programme. The Planning Commission Evaluation Study has also adversely commented on this.

For supplementing the income of Antyodaya families they have given priority in employment on all public works including those taken up under the Food for Work Programme through panchayats. Our experience of Pali district was that needy Antyodayees were able to supplement their income by working on the Food for Work Programme. There is a system of monitoring of employment provided to Antyodayees by various departments. This has been a very healthy development.

Due to rigidity of loan procedures, lack of understanding of the problems of the poor, imagined risk for the investment to be made for the poor and innovative nature of this programme considerable difficulties were experienced by the programme administration in persuading financial agencies including the Reserve Bank of India in relaxing their credit norms and in modifying the existing procedures. It is a measure of the efforts made that most of these obstacles were ultimately overcome.

#### FUTURE

The biggest challenge the programme faces is regarding the existence of a question mark about its continuation consequent to the change in the political landscape of the country after the recent Lok Sabha elections. The Government which launched this programme no longer exists. However, due to the non-political character of this anti-poverty programme and due to the success it has achieved and response it has evoked among the poor, it is likely that the programme would continue in the coming years. The analysis made in this paper is based on this hope.

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## 5

### Special Schemes Organization

Satish Kumar

R A J A S T H A N, the second largest State in the Indian Union in terms of area, has basically a rural and agricultural economy. The State grows 6 per cent of the foodgrain output of the country, occupying 9th place. It is the largest producer of bajra and the second largest producer of gram, barley, rapeseed and mustard. These statistics may be viewed in the light of the fact that not more than 146 lakh hectares out of the total area of 346 lakh hectares is cultivable. The western region of the State comprising 55 per cent of the total land area falls in the Thar desert and has mainly animal husbandry-based economy. This region harbours some of the country's best breeds of cattle and sheep. The State produces 40 per cent of the country's wool and 10 per cent of the country's milk. Forestry in this region is poor and not more than 10 per cent of the area is covered by forests. The State lacks perennial river systems and, therefore, has a low level of irrigation—gross irrigated area being only 17 per cent of the cultivated area. Its major efforts in irrigating land are, therefore, concentrated on either bringing water from outside through canal systems or exploiting the ground water for which potential is unevenly spread. There is limited underground water availability in the large parts of western arid zone. Trapping surface water into tanks and ponds has to be extensively used. The State is weak in infrastructure though it is catching up fast with the rest of the country. It has only 110 kilometres road per 1000 sq. km. (all India: 272); 19 out of the 26 districts are inadequately banked; per capita consumption of electricity is 75 units (all India figure 101); literacy is 19.8 per cent (all India 29.5 per cent). There are over 5 million cultivators and 0.7 million agricultural labourers operating nearly 4 million operational holdings. The soils are prone to erosion by rain as well as wind action. Population being low, consumption of milk internally in the State cannot support the large cattle population nor stimulate efforts to improve the breeds. Nearly half of the sheep stock is producing low quality, low priced hairy

wools and much less attention has been paid in developing breeds for mutton purposes. Over 12 million goats are the mainstay of the poorer sections of rural community for milk and mutton but again a large number is exported out of the State basically for mutton purposes; the State being deprived of the employment by value added through mutton processing industry. Same applies to the sheep stock and a large proportion of the disposable cattle stock. The State has over 1.20 lac hectares of fresh water reservoir with production potential of over 50,000 tonnes a year but only 10,000 tonnes a year are being harvested. Thus considerable potential remains to be tapped. Tremendous inputs are required for forestry development in higher rainfall regions of the State. Agriculture marketing needs great improvement. There are 214 market yards but all excepting 17 are yet to be developed to the required standards.

For securing optimum exploitation of these resources, it was estimated that investment of about Rs. 2,250 crores would be needed to develop selected areas in the agriculture and allied sectors. These investments were estimated in the perspective of nearly 10 to 15 years development programmes. The State's own resources would not spare even a fraction of this amount as the infrastructure and social services sectors claim a very large input from budgetary resources. The only recourse available to the State, therefore, was tapping the vast potential of institutional finance—both from the agencies in the country and abroad. Institutional credit, it was realized, would not be available unless the programmes were properly projected, establishing economic and financial viability of the venture and duly quantifying the social benefits that would accrue. This naturally brought to the fore the need of creating an expert organization suitably equipped with skills for project planning. Accordingly in 1971 the State Government created a special cell in the Agriculture Department of the State Secretariat which has come to be known as the Special Schemes Organization. This Organization was initially set up with a view mainly to preparing agricultural development projects but eventually its role was expanded to cover overseeing the implementation of multi-disciplinary projects and programmes, e.g., Drought Prone Areas Programme, Desert Development Programme, Small Farmers' Development Agency, Antyodaya, Integrated Rural Development, etc. So far the organization has been able to prepare projects for attracting nearly 1000 crores of rupees through central sector plan schemes and institutional finance

agencies—both national and international. Projects of the value of nearly Rs. 300 crores are in various stages of formulation. Each year the organization draws up a list of the projects to be prepared which is then fitted into a calendar of activities for projectising and posing to funding institutions.

The Special Schemes Organization is, as stated above, a team of multi-disciplinary specialists drawn from various disciplines and selected on the basis of merit through Special Selection Rules designed to permit deep selection. Much higher scales are given to the specially selected talented officers joining the Special Schemes Organization on a fixed tenure basis. This selection does not allow any claim of seniority in the parent cadre and return to the cadre after the fixed term is mandatory. In this manner the Special Schemes Organization has been able to attract talent from various disciplines and departments within the Government and outside and in turn has been instrumental in enriching them by returning these people well versed in project formulation, management and monitoring. A structural design of the organization is given in Table 5.1. A list of the projects formulated is also given in Table 5.2.

Projects formulated by the Special Schemes Organization largely fall in three categories:

(a) *Schemes intended to increase production and productivity in the Agriculture and allied sectors:* Projects relating to minor irrigation, lining of field channel, soil conservation, water harvesting schemes, fruit and horticulture developmental schemes, market yard development, fisheries, sheep, poultry and piggery, biogas, farm mechanization etc. are some of the examples belonging to this category. Some infrastructural development projects of market yard, rural electrification exclusively supportive to agricultural activity, arural approach roads etc. have also been formulated;

(b) *Schemes for the Area Development Programmes:* Rajasthan Canal Command Area Development, Chambal Command Area Development, the Drought Prone Area Programme, the Desert Development Programme and the Tribal Area Development Projects have been formulated by the organization. Now the organization is engaged in formulating Integrated Rural Development Projects and development of rural infrastructure through the concept of Rural Growth Centres. Another scheme being projectised is the total development of the village community in all the aspects—social, economic and infrastructural.

TABLE 5.1

# Organizational set-up of the Special Schemes Organization—Commissioner & Secretary (Spl. Schemes & Antyodaya)

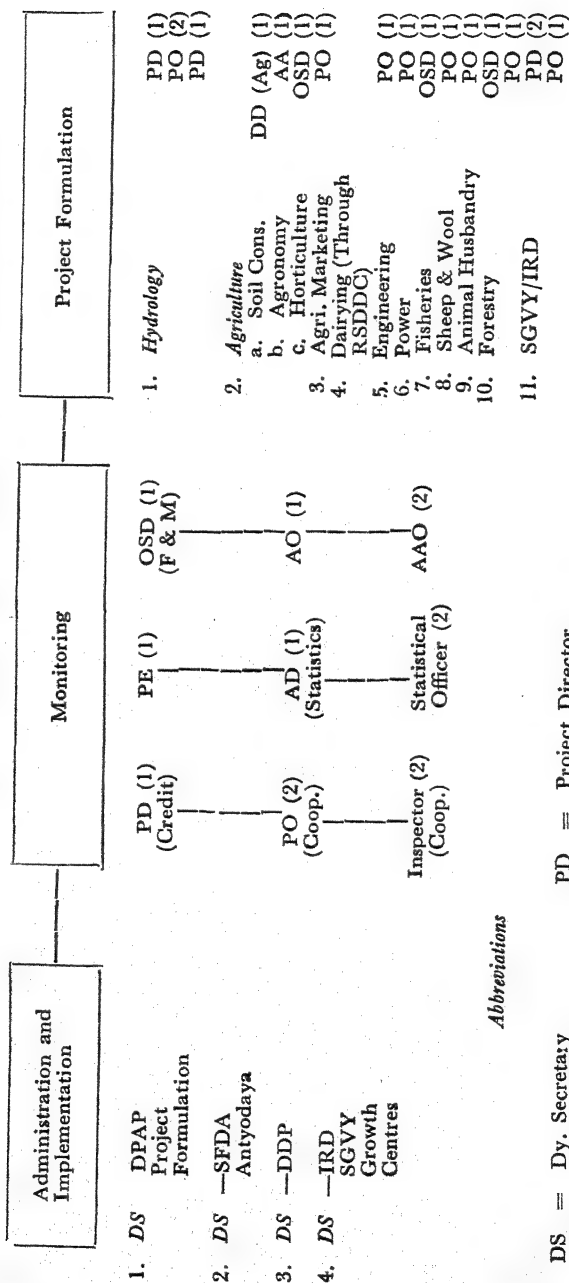




TABLE 5.2

**Position of the Projects prepared/sanctioned in the  
Special Schemes Organization, Rajasthan, since  
inception of the SSO up to 1978-79**

(Rs. in crores)

Sl. No.	Name of the Project	Financial outlay		Financing Agency	If sanctioned	
		No.	Amount		No.	Amount
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>(A) Schemes intended to increase Agriculture Production/Productivity</b>						
1.	<i>Minor Irrigation Schemes</i>					
	(a) Minor Irrigation Sch.	196*	73.97	ARDC Coop./	170*	66.20
	(b) Cluster Tubewell Sch.	10	2.50	Commr. Banks	10	2.50
		P.Ss			P.Ss.	
	(c) Field Channels	42	12.81	ARDC	14	4.94
	(d) Sprinkler irrigation	1	0.19	ARDC	—	—
2.	<i>Soil Conservation</i>					
	(a) DPAP Watersheds	95	2.00	GOI	95	2.00
	(b) Soil Conservation	23	15.00	ARDC	4	4.54
3.	<i>Water Harvesting</i>					
	(a) Farm pond sch., Churu	1	6.50	ARDC	—	—
	(b) DPAP	3 dist.		FOI		1.02
	(c) Water harvesting, Banswara	1	0.14	ARDC	—	—
4.	<i>Fruit Development</i>					
	(a) Fruit plantation	15	5.30	ARDC	3	1.25
5.	Market yard project	14	21.85	ARDC	17	6.00
6.	Biogas (25 distt.)	1	1.11	GOI		
7.	<i>Fisheries</i>					
	(a) Inland fisheries dev. in Banswara district, Udaipur, under IATDP Rajasthan	1	0.60	GOI	1	0.60
	(b) Fish seed production project	1	2.00	World Bank	—	—
	(c) Intensive fish culture in 6 districts	6	1.28	GOI	3	0.12
	(d) Integrated inland fisheries (Reservoirs) dev. project in Rajasthan	1	21.10	NCDC	—	—

8. *Forestry*

(a) Project report on afforestation and pasture dev. on left bank of RGP stage I	1	3.00	CAD	—	—
(b) Project report on shelter belt plantation & pasture dev. in Lathi series project	1	0.01	—	—	—
(c) Project report on Raj. Forest Dev. Corpn.	1	15.00	ARDC	—	—
(d) Project report on protection of table & marginal land by soil conservation & afforestation in ravine lands adjoining on farm dev. areas in Chambal Project, Kota, for phase II	1	8.1	CAD	—	—
(e) Forestry scheme of shelter belt plantation along roadside and fuelwood plantation in Chimanpura village under Semagra gram vikas	1	0.01	State plan S.G.V.	—	—

Total (A)	192.47	89.17
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**(B) Schemes for the rural poor**

1. SFDA (26 Districts)	26	76.00	GOI/Coop. Commr. Banks	26	76.0
2. <i>Dairy Development</i>					
(a) World Bank Project (6 districts)	1	41.0	IDA/ARDC/ NCDC	1	41.0
(b) Milch cattle	1	3.08	ARDC	—	—
3. <i>Sheep Development</i>					
(a) Project report Raj. State Coop. Wool Marketing Board		25.01	State Govt. GOI/Commr. Banks		
(b) Project of sheep dev. for S&MF and A.L. through PLDBs		5.27	PLDBs	Under consideration of ARDC	
		7.31			
4. Goats for milk & mutton	1	0.72	ARDC	—	—
5. Camel with cart	1	0.33		—	—
6. Antyodaya	1	187.00	ARDC/GOI/ Coop./Commr. Banks	1	187.00

Total (B)	345.74	304.00
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**(C) Area Development Project**

1. RCP-CAD Project	1	139.20	World Bank/ GOI/GOR	1	139.20
2. Chambal-CAD Project	1	73.20	-do-	1	73.20
3. DPAP/DDP					
(a) DPAP Ist phase (1970-71 to 73-74)	1	20.00	GOI	1	20.00
(b) DPAP IIInd phase (1974-75 to 78-79)	1	45.45	GOI/GOR	1	45.45
(c) DPAP/IDA Project (Jodhpur-Nagaur)	1	17.43	IDA	1	17.43
4. DDP	1	90.46	GOI	1	10.80
5. TAD Project					
(a) Plan resources	1	18.20	GOI	1	18.20
(b) Institutional finance	1	14.00	Banks	1	14.00
Total (C)		417.94			338.78
GRAND TOTAL		956.15			731.45

\* Inclusive of closed, supplementary, part panchayat samiti and individual MI schemes sent by commercial banks covering a total no. of 160 panchayat samitis and five SFDA districts.

(c) *Schemes for the Rural Poor*: The important schemes formulated are the Small Farmers' Development Programme, Special Animal Husbandry Programme, Special Sheep Development Project, Dairying scheme for distribution of milch cattle and animal-driven transport vehicle and lastly the Antyodaya Project.

Antyodaya concept of eradicating poverty took its birth in Rajasthan in 1977 when the Government launched a massive programme of economic upliftment of poorest of the poor in the rural areas. Antyodaya means 'upliftment of the last man in the row'. As the term signifies, the programme is meant for the poorest amongst the poor in the rural community of the State. The benefit programme commences with the poorest and slowly travels upwards till the man right on the poverty line is reached. The Antyodaya project in the first phase of five years is intended to cover about 6 lac families with the investment of Rs. 187 crores out of which Rs. 117 crores will be institutional finance.

## PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

In the past the scheme implementation in the Government has largely been through the functional departments but this traditional method was found wanting of effective implementation of multi-disciplinary projects involving execution by various departments. Besides, the execution of uni-functional projects also suffered through traditional method of departmental implementation for the reasons stated below:

First, these uni-functional projects of minor irrigation etc., also involved interaction with other agencies, *e.g.*, the bank, the block development agency, the revenue agency, the State Electricity Authority and the extension agency involved in the fuller exploitation of post-development activity. Secondly, persons trained in uni-functional implementation were found lacking in skills and orientation needed for implementing a time-bound project involving interaction of the kind stated above. The need was, therefore, felt for a new structure for implementing such projects and also for recruiting appropriate manpower for execution. Numerous innovations were introduced by the State Government in the field of project implementation which are described below:

(a) *Area Development Authorities*: The concept of area development management was introduced in the Rajasthan Canal, Chambal and Mahi Command areas where a project authority was constituted at the command area level for overseeing the execution of all the programmes embracing command area development. Area Development Commissioners with powers of all the heads of department involved in execution were placed at the head of these bodies and officials at sufficiently senior levels were placed with these agencies on deputation. Within the agency the administration is practically single line and in matters of implementation no reference is needed to any of the heads of department or to the State Government. Agencies are supported with monitoring set-up.

(b) Because of the very special feature of tribal areas, a special integrated programme for tribal development has been devised for the area inhabited by tribals. This integrated project has been given the name of Tribal Sub-Plans. The Tribal sub-plan combines the features of an area development programme and the individual beneficiary programme. A Special Commissioner for the Tribal Area Development, located in the sub-plan area, is in charge of the

programme, both for its planning as well as implementation. He chairs the Tribal Development Corporation which caters to the non-credit requirements of the tribals like marketing supplies and services etc. However, the Tribal Development Commissioner does not control a single line formation below him. He is the chief coordinator and oversees and monitors the implementation of the various components of the tribal sub-plan which is basically executed through the District Development Agencies and some State level departments.

(c) *Area Development Programmes like Drought Prone Areas Programme, Desert Development Programme and Individual Beneficiary Programme:* For implementing the area development programme of Drought Prone Areas Programme and Desert Development Programme and the Individual Beneficiary Programme like Small Farmers' Development Agency, Antyodaya and Integrated Rural Development, the institutions for implementation and monitoring are the District Development Agency/Small Farmers Development Agency which are registered Societies. Invariably the District Collector is the Chairman with members of the Legislative Assembly and district level officers of the functional departments and heads of the financing institutions as members. The District Development Agency is the basic planning body and the chief implementor of the programme. It assigns tasks and releases funds to various departments and institutions. It monitors and coordinates the implementation of the programme. All the State funds for these programmes are placed at the disposal of the District Development Agencies.

(d) Since desert development and drought proofing are vitally important for the semi-arid State, considerable importance has been attached to the area programmes dealing with these subjects. For this purpose a chief coordinator, designated as the Desert Development Commissioner, has been assigned the tasks of overall supervision, coordination and monitoring of these programmes in 11 districts of the State.

(e) *Special set-up for Minor Irrigation Projects etc.:* A special project authority has been created for Minor Irrigation Schemes and soil conservation projects which are being implemented at the block level. The Project Officer is a specially selected functionary under the special selection rules. He is supported by requisite technical and field staff. Based on the experience of the last six years this project staff has been integrated with the staff of the funding agencies

namely Land Development Banks. Presently the project officer is also an ex-officio Secretary of the Land Development Banks and this has brought about the much needed coordination between these two authorities which at times were found to act at cross-purposes. Since the Land Development Banks are cooperative institutions controlled by the Registrar of Cooperative Societies, the responsibility of overseeing and monitoring these projects at State level has been assigned to him. He is being supported in this supervisory role by a special monitoring cell.

(f) *Special Corporations for some Projects:* For the inland fisheries project, the orange plantation project and the forestry project, special corporations are being set up. Orange Plantation and the Fisheries Corporations will be oriented to help the farmers through input services, extension services, marketing services and infrastructural facilities like storage etc. The lower formations would be cooperative societies of fish farmers or orange plantation farmers which will federate to form the apex corporation. This system will enable drawal of finances from the National Cooperative Development Corporation. The Forestry Corporation, besides managing the raising of forest and marketing of the forest produce, would also look after the social forestry component designed for the residents of the area in its area of operation.

(g) *Monitoring Techniques:* Key indicators have been developed and proforma designed for quick and effective monitoring. Further communication through wireless and telegrams, telex, etc. is being made for expeditious collection of the information. The consolidated State-wise picture is being invariably circulated to the executing agencies and through the simple device of placing the district agencies/departments in order of their performance. In each of these monthly progress reports a healthy competition for improving performance has been introduced.

(h) *The Camp Technique of Implementing Individual Beneficiary Programme:* Led by the Antyodaya programme, the schemes for weaker sections have assumed the highest importance in the State. In all these individual beneficiary programmes the State Government subsidizes the investment costs of the venture which are basically financed by the credit institutions. Sanction of credit in such cases involves participation by several agencies. To secure expeditious finalization of the loan applications the procedure of holding of camps in selected areas for a specified number of individual bene-

ficiaries in that area has been devised. All the concerned agencies like land revenue/development/cooperative credit institutions/commercial banks/insurance companies/industries departments etc. are present in the camp to verify/attest the portions of the applications concerning their sphere of activity so that the financing bank, also present on the spot, gets the application completed and after due verifications sanctions the loan on the spot. On several occasions the disbursement is also done on the spot as the project authority simultaneously arranges a 'bazar' for purchase of cattle, sheep, bullock carts, etc. then and there. This technique has lent considerable speed to the process of making available ultimate benefit to the identified families expeditiously.

A uniform system of sponsoring and preparation and sanction of the applications has been devised to help the project authority to monitor the progress of various stages of the benefit programme.

## 6

# Expansion of Agriculture and Ground Water

Ranbir Singh

R A J A S T H A N ' S economy is based primarily on agriculture which is also a major source of employment for a big majority of the rural population. Since job opportunities in other fields have not kept pace with the rising population, agriculture is obviously overburdened and, as such, has been practised more as a traditional occupation than as a business proposition. Total number of agricultural holdings are multiplying at a fantastic rate. At present there are over 3.7 million holdings in the State and the question is how to motivate them to higher levels of productivity. Holdings up to 1 ha., 3 ha., 5 ha. and 10 ha. account for 25.33 per cent, 55.99 per cent, 70.59 per cent and 86.2 per cent of the total holdings, respectively, and occupy 2.26 per cent, 12.74 per cent, 27.34 per cent and 42.77 per cent of the total area held in private possession.

The State has an estimated total human population of 29 million as in 1976 and this figure is expected to go up to 32 million by 1981. Of the total population as many as 83.72 per cent people live in rural Rajasthan. Between the decade 1961-71 rural as well as urban populations registered a rise from 17 million to 21 million and from 3.3 million to 4.5 million respectively.

Modern agricultural technology must be adopted if the country's requirements of food, fibre and other products are to be met through home production. The challenge that agricultural extension services have to meet in reaching millions of farmers is a formidable one. Equally hard is the job of supporting services, whether it concerns research or mobilization of inputs and credit. Managing weather to maximum advantage is yet another task. To achieve these objectives crop-animal base and needed practices have to be changed to suit the environment, on the one hand, and to change or modify environment to suit the crop-animal complex, on the other. This obviously involves human factor to the utmost.

Consequent upon the integration of 19 princely States, Rajasthan was formed in 1949. With the States reorganization which



took place in 1956, Ajmer (till then a Centrally-administered area) was transferred to this State.

Several integrating States had their own organizational set-up for agricultural and ground water development and such agencies varied widely, structurally and otherwise, depending upon the natural and financial resources as also the interest and imagination of the respective governments. States like Jaipur, Kota, Udaipur, Bikaner and Jodhpur had whole-time staff which looked after these programmes. Research support was also available in a few of these States, notably Jaipur and Bikaner. The old Indian Institute of Plant Industry, Indore, provided valuable guidance and support for agricultural programmes to a number of princely States under its programmes of technical assistance. Research programmes invariably were carried out under the guidance of this Institute.

The position of Director of Agriculture-cum-Food Commissioner, Rajasthan, was established in 1949. He was responsible for implementing the agricultural research and development schemes including the Grow More Food (GMF) schemes of those days on which considerable emphasis was placed for increasing food production in the immediate post-independence era. The directorate was responsible for supervising and controlling the operations in the field.

In 1952 the Community Development blocks were established and this was followed by the creation of the National Extension Services. Rajasthan has the distinction of adding yet another dimension to the whole scene when, in 1959, Zila Parishads and Panchayat Samitis were set up, bringing about democratic decentralization of developmental and other functions. The Department of Community Development and Panchayati Raj was established to ensure coordination among the different programmes aiming at rural awakening and development. It was later headed by the Development Commissioner who was made the Agriculture Production Secretary, thus combining "field" responsibilities with Secretariat functions. The early incumbents were very senior administrative officers and were quite effective at the policy-making level and for implementing, coordinating and monitoring the programmes. This arrangement lent a good deal of strength to the programme.

The initial structure of the Directorate of Agriculture was comprehensive and it was, so to say, an omnibus Agriculture Directorate having, besides Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Sheep and Wool, Dairy Development and Ground Water activities within its fold. These branches later developed into independent directorates.

Now let us see where the journey started and how far we have come in so far as agricultural production is concerned. The following are some of the main highlights of the efforts and achievements made so far:

(1) Extension in gross cropped area which increased from +109 lac *ha.* in 1952-53 to approximately 170 lac *ha.* in 1977-78. This level fluctuates depending primarily upon the incidence of rainfall in the year under reference.

(2) Increase in irrigated area from 12.83 lac *ha.* in 1952-53 to 26 lac *ha.* With the growth of irrigation, spectacular growth in energization of irrigation pumping sets on wells and tubewells, from less than 1000 to +1.28 lacs, was achieved during the same period.

(3) Wider adoption of agricultural inputs, notably seeds of improved and high-yielding varieties, fertilizers, insecticides and chemicals and electric power became possible with substantial support from agricultural lending agencies. As of June 1977 the multipurpose cooperatives and primary agricultural credit societies had achieved the following level of development:

Table No. of societies		Membership	No. of societies engaged in distribution of inputs		
5,145		2,160,000	2,652		
Value of input disbursed (Rs.)					
<i>Seeds</i>	<i>Fertilizers</i>	<i>Pesticides</i>	<i>Others</i>	<i>Total</i>	
.57	13.57	.57	.57	14.78	
lacs	crores	lacs	lacs	crores	

Cooperative structure from the Apex level to the level of Co-operative Marketing Societies has been handling the marketing of fertilizers since 1961-62, pesticides since 1975-76 and seeds since kharif 1979-80, thus providing a useful service. Private and public sector manufacturers and other organizations, notably Rajasthan State Agro Industries Corporation, Agro Service Centres and Panchayat Samitis, have played a vital role in encouraging greater use of these inputs and other items such as tools, implements and machinery.

Ready availability of inputs made possible through advance stocking followed by an adequate distribution network and technical support from agricultural extension efforts have been instrumental in pushing up their adoption to new levels. Table 6.1 shows the progress achieved on this front.

Seeds of improved high-yielding varieties and pedigreed plants have contributed to the so-called "Green Revolution". On the other side, better health care, feeding, management, marketing and cross-breeding of dairy animals have ushered the "White Revolution."

Some other significant developments are listed as under:

- (1) Restructuring of the Directorate of Agriculture to provide more effective agricultural extension service.
- (2) Double and multiple-cropping registered a jump from 5.41 lac *ha.* in 1952-53 to approximately 19 lac *ha.* in 1976-77.
- (3) Better control of plant and animal diseases, pests, etc.
- (4) More efficient management of irrigation water and rain water through various programmes including Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP) for drought proofing.
- (5) Reorganization of seed production, certification and seed marketing.
- (6) Collection and cooperative marketing of milk.
- (7) Upgrading of breeds of animals.
- (8) Regulated marketing of agricultural produce to guarantee fair prices to the producers.

All these and many ancillary efforts have led the State to greater production in the sector as a whole. In the matter of foodgrains alone, our production has increased from 33.86 lac metric tonnes, in 1952-53 to approximately 78 lac metric tonnes in 1978-79. Similar achievements have been made in the production of oilseeds, sugarcane, cotton and in animal production. It is significant to note that wide fluctuations that existed in crop production directly influenced by the seasonal conditions have become less intense which is a healthy trend towards achieving stability in the field of primary production.

In so far as agricultural research was concerned, the Directorate was charged with the responsibility of implementing various research schemes which made it possible for it to combine the R & D components within its ambit. This arrangement continued up to 1962 when research schemes of a fundamental nature were identified and transferred to the University of Udaipur. Schemes of applied nature, however, continued to be with the Directorate up to April 1976 when the next important milestone was reached, namely, the transfer of total agricultural research from the Directorate to the University. This was in pursuance of the National Policy enunciated in the reports of the National Commission on Agriculture duly

considered and accepted by the State. At this stage it is significant to recall that agricultural research programmes for Command Area Development (CAD), Rajasthan Canal Project (RCP) and Chambal continued to be with these agencies. The ICAR has been insisting that the State Government should review this arrangement and transfer all agricultural research to the University which for all practical purposes is the State's agricultural university. It is a doubtful question whether this University is a multi-faculty University or fullfledged Agricultural University. Every major State of the nation has at least one Agricultural University although a few States like Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh have more than one. It is high time that one such University starts functioning in this State. A high-level committee appointed by the Government is looking into the re-organizational aspect of all the three Universities. Thinking at the national level leaves no room for any debate on this account. How and when such a University will be set up seems to be the only issue left unsettled. The issue of supreme importance, however, remains that the field challenges must be met as best as possible. There cannot be any complacency on this account.

The arrangements outlined above may appear to be different and in contrast to the old system and structure which provided for a comprehensive umbrella with the Directorate of Agriculture to cover agricultural research and education besides agricultural development/extension. That system had its own merits. But the advantages of the new institutional arrangement are obvious. First, universities are supposed to be autonomous bodies, perhaps, not bound down to rigidities in their functioning and as such one might expect them to be far more flexible in adjusting to situations. Secondly, by and large it can be said that better qualified staff is available not only for teaching but for research and extension education as well. These are highly important objectives provided they are served. Any system would call for committed services fully devoted to their jobs without which its efficiency would be threatened. A sense of accountability has to prevail among all public services, including those working in Universities, without which there would be a big danger of running away from the challenge and targets resulting in a climate of no-confidence in the system. Can the nation afford it? It is necessary to ensure that merely degree-oriented teaching, publication-oriented research and convenience-oriented extension are not institutionalized at public expense. This

is a fundamental issue which is at the root of all disputes and must engage our serious concern.

Research organization has to generate appropriate technology to meet the present-day problems, of course, with an eye on long-range issues as well. In this process the problems of tomorrow obviously cannot take priority over the problems of today. It is important that technology which is developed is fully relevant to the overall setting so as to be of immediate use. For verifying the claims and results of a piece of technology developed at the research level, adaptive trials are laid out. These trials are crucial in the total exercise of transferring technology from the laboratories and research farms to the fields. The new Training and Visit (T & V) set-up available for agricultural extension in 17 of the 26 districts has the capacity to improve the level of farming in these districts which have comparatively higher agricultural potential compared to other districts. The new system hinges on fortnightly training sessions followed by field visits by the Village Level Workers (VLWs) and close technical guidance by the Agriculture Extension Officer (AEO) and Subject Matter Specialists. Thus not only the "Lab to Land" transfer of technology can be ensured but the reverse process of "Land to Lab" which is essential for a proper feedback mechanism for applying needed correctives in the on-going programmes and new field problems, can also be put into operation.

A State where incidence of rainfall ranges from a trickle to as high as 110 cm. almost all received in a brief period of three months or so and where nearly 80 per cent area depends on erratic rainfall, irrigation continues to receive a high priority for obvious reasons. Efficiency of water use has yet to be achieved, particularly, under the canal command areas where more than half the quantity of water is lost in this process of conveyance which only goes to feed the ground water or create an artificial water table, both leading to water-logging and all the difficult consequences that follow.

Other forms of wastage of water also need to be checked because shortage of water is the most limiting factor in agricultural production. It cannot be applied to crops in excessive quantities without sacrificing yields. Irrigation requirement of a crop varies according to its stage of growth. In an efficient system critical stages of irrigation should not be missed if optimum production is desired. Control of water supplies on a turn-key basis has much to commend it, but more often than not, it is possible to do so only in minor irri-

gation schemes. Canal irrigation, generally speaking, is not effective to the same extent.

In recognition of the relevance and need of ground water exploitation, the Rajasthan Ground Water Department has been built over the years. Today it is well staffed and equipped to handle hydro-geological surveys, deepening of wells by boring and blasting and drilling of tube-wells as well as their running and maintenance, where so required.

In pursuance of the Government policy, institutional and commercial finance for minor irrigation schemes became available and substantial developments have taken place since 1968. Net area irrigated by wells and tube-wells has registered an increase from 6.84 lac *ha.* in 1951 to 15.50 lac *ha.* in 1977-78, out of a total of 27.65 lac *ha.* of irrigated area. What remains to be achieved is proper land development, followed by an adequate cropping pattern and improved extension work so as to increase total yield and repaying capacity.

The number of wells going out of use is substantial. It is estimated to be as high as 1/3rd of the total number in some areas. To what extent uncontrolled sinking of wells is responsible for such a high rate of disuse needs to be examined. For availing of institutional or bank finance, sinking of wells is required to be regulated as per ground water survey data to ward off disappointment. However, there is nothing to prevent an individual to invest his own money for sinking a new well without any regard to the recommendations of the Ground Water Department regarding distance between his new well and adjacent wells where they exist. It is time that a suitable legislation is enacted to prevent any such situation which ultimately leads to unproductive investment.

Total rainfall and its seasonal distribution tend to have a fairly close co-relation with the total production of the season and the year. A look at the figure of production for some selected years having normal rainfall and deficient rainfall will show how production is related to the year's rainfall. Table 6.2 shows rainfall and agricultural production.

Level of inputs and technology do play their role although their incidence or impact does not appear to be as much and as widespread in comparison to the impact of the weather and moisture conditions. This only goes to underline the importance of doing all that is within human control to weather-proof agricultural pro-

duction to the maximum possible extent. It is easy to appreciate what would happen without the use of inputs and technology.

Results of successful demonstrations and trials show what is possible to achieve by way of yields under those conditions. Substantial gap exists between average yields harvested as compared to what is achievable. It is this gap which must be bridged. Small farmers will acquire the capacity to push up their yields only after they are exposed to better technology and if credit and inputs are lined up for them. These holdings suffer all the disadvantages that go with low productivity. Motivation of this group poses a big challenge but it has to be met if the lot of the poor is to be ameliorated.

The past decade witnessed many changes of far-reaching importance and the author had opportunities of fully participating in these developments. For example, with the transfer of inputs supplies and services from the jurisdiction of the Directorate to other agencies, the agricultural technicians at all levels can now devote themselves totally to the task of keeping themselves abreast of technical developments so as to equip better to handle their professional jobs which, though specialized, call for participative inter-faces with many other disciplines, all of which have to be integrated into a well-directed approach. Arrangements for production of high-yielding seeds and improved seeds were continued at a level high enough for the new Seed-Project to take over. Today the State has highly satisfactory arrangements for seed production as also certification, thanks to the efforts of many participants which include officials and experienced seed producers. The Department could not have continued with this programme much less to expand it in the years ahead without sacrificing some other core functions of a technical nature.

Creation of buffer stocks of pool fertilizers was another act of foresight on the part of the Central Ministry of Agriculture. Today such stocks are available at approximately 33 centres of the Central Ministry of Agriculture and State agencies can draw upon these reserves without loss of time. Earlier such stocks were not available in the State and had to be rushed causing all types of stresses and strains all along the line.

Rajasthan has considerable potential for stepping up agricultural production under irrigated as well as rainfed conditions. There is no doubt with the available man-power and other resources as may be put together, the State will be able to achieve new heights and reach new horizons in the years ahead.

TABLE 6.1

**Distribution of Fertilizers and Seeds and Coverage  
with Plant Protection Measures for Selected Years**

<i>Year</i>	<i>Fertilizer (M.T. nutrients)</i>	<i>Improved/High- yielding Seeds (Qtls)</i>	<i>Plant Protection coverage (Ha)</i>
1959-60	1,468	N.A.	N.A.
1967-68	23,791	10,810	N.A.
1969-70	41,191	22,457	26.94
1972-73	59,956	26,836	32.20
1975-76	77,253	38,353	36.70
1976-77	98,556	41,644	48.36
1978-79	133,584	57,501	41.02

TABLE 6.2

**Agricultural Production and Rainfall for Selected Years**

<i>Year</i>	<i>Production Foodgrains</i>	<i>Cotton</i>	<i>Oilseeds</i>	<i>Sugar- cane</i>	<i>Rainfall June- Sept.</i>	<i>Total</i>
1968-69 (D)	35.48	1.48	1.50	5.24	37.42	39.14
1970-71 (N)	88.41	2.42	5.34	12.34	57.81	62.27
1972-73 (D)	51.58	3.04	3.83	13.52	38.44	41.15
1974-75 (D)	49.78	3.57	5.00	21.70	39.65	47.13
1975-76 (N)	77.35	4.04	3.95	15.58	74.90	82.74
1976-77 (N)	74.90	3.48	3.45	19.91	66.87	75.64
1978-79 (N)	78.13	5.70	5.56	21.94	65.46	73.57

*Note:* D: Drought Year N: Normal Year.



## 7

# Development of Catchment Areas in Chambal Rajasthan Project

Rakesh Hooja

On Farm Development in India has taken many forms, with each State and project having its own model of On Farm Development. However, the Chambal Rajasthan Project is unique in that unlike all other projects it undertakes On Farm Development on a catchment basis and not on an outlet or chak (area fed by an irrigation outlet) basis.<sup>1</sup> The term "catchment" is used in the Chambal Rajasthan Project to denote the area or sub-area that is drained by a Government drain (i.e. the catchment of the drain) and should not be confused with a catchment of a river for river, catchment protection works (also referred to as works upstream of the dam on the river) are undertaken by the Forest Department. However, On Farm Development work (which Chambal Rajasthan villagers popularly call "catchment work") is done by the C.A.D. Project Authorities.

Before describing the present pattern and procedures of catchment development, it would be useful to see how this unique (for India) model has evolved. The Chambal Rajasthan Irrigation System started irrigating its Command Area in 1960.<sup>2</sup> However, problems of waterlogging, weeds, soil salinity started cropping within a year or two. Hence from 1967 to 1971 and again till 1974 FAO-UNDP Soil and Water Management Project was run in two phases (the second phase including pilot projects in four other irrigation commands of India) in collaboration with the Government of India and the State Government to experiment and find solutions for the following problems:

- (a) Control of waterlogging and resultant salinity;
- (b) Proper distribution of irrigation water and control of weeds in canals;
- (c) Improvement of drainage, irrigation and farm practices in the farmers' fields (Phase-I); and

- (i) demonstrate work on improved methods of land and water management,
- (ii) improve the organization of engineering works of scale and agricultural follow-up activities.
- (iii) facilitate the flow of technical information (Phase-II).

The State Government also set up an Office of Commissioner, Chambal Area Development, and R.C. Sood and his successor B. Hooja thus collaborated with the UNDP Project in this venture. Demonstration-cum-experimental land development was undertaken in 447 hectares by the UNDP Project.<sup>3</sup>

On the basis of the UNDP Project, the Chambal Project Authorities were in a position in 1973-74 to identify nine different models of On Farm Development for discussions with the review missions of the World Bank which visited the project prior to finalizing the Chambal Rajasthan Project (1974-80) Appraisal Report.<sup>4</sup> Even though one of the nine models (the ninth) was eventually accepted for execution during the Phase-I Project, it would be useful to reproduce extracts from the note<sup>5</sup> about the nine models here so as to help in the understanding of the present models (called Full Package On Farm Development which approximates to model numbers 7, 8 and 9, more so to 7) especially because Intermediate On Farm Development (*i.e.* models 1 to 6) is again being considered as a viable alternative in view of the limits of repayment capability of the farmers and their lack of enthusiasm<sup>6</sup> to get Full Package On Farm Development Work done.

#### MODEL NO. 1

In this model the main drainage system consisting of existing natural drainage network (nallah) and main drains to be constructed at a few places have been covered. These are mainly to take care of the run off during stormy weather only. There are no connecting drains from individual fields to these drains and the water will run off through the fields and find its way to the main drain.

The existing irrigation distribution system is to be improved by providing different control structures and lining vulnerable sections where seepage is more. This will facilitate the application of right quantity of water at the right place and at the right time if further field distribution system is well developed. The above system and practice of rotational irrigation will help in getting the

water to each field, thus increasing the efficiency of irrigation. Similarly, the provision for the Kyari system *i.e.* formation of beds of minimum size at the cultivators' field will also help in better field water application efficiency. These two points may have to be enforced by taking some suitable action. Increased crop production will be possible by providing effective agricultural extension services to the cultivators and arrangements of necessary inputs from different sources. The existing village roads may have to be reformed and raised so that communication is possible during rainy season from village to village . . . the land wasted near the nallah is much and the production can be increased many times if the nallah is shaped properly and the land near the nallah is levelled and protected. The total cost of these items, which may be called as infrastructures, may be between Rs. 1,800 and Rs. 2,400 per hectare (at 1973-74 prices) which shall have to be borne entirely by the Government.

#### MODEL NO.2

All the items covered under Model No. 1 are essential so that infrastructure is complete. In addition to above, only the remodelling and extension of existing field watercourses are envisaged. This will consist of mainly raising the bunds on both sides of watercourses, repairing the borrow holes and cleaning the water from typha and other weeds, so that flow in the channel is improved . . . . The section of the watercourse . . . is of low technical standard . . . water can reach the fields but not at the desired rate and quantity. Higher spots may not be irrigated or these can be irrigated after flooding the depressions. With improvement in the watercourse the losses in the watercourse will be reduced. Thus some saving in the water will be available. Crops near the watercourse which used to be affected by seepage would be partly saved by partial improvement of the existing watercourse.

#### MODEL NO. 3

In order to have a provision to take out the surplus water from the field to the main drain in addition to the items covered under Model No. 2, it is desired to take out the excess water from the fields by shallow surface drain connecting them to main drains. The drainage system may have to be constructed by providing drains along

the field boundaries from field to field. The size of the drains would be very small only to take care of heaviest storm in a five-year period, meaning that one crop could be damaged in five years time. It will have to be seen whether the farmers will allow construction of drain through their fields as well as to allow flow of water from nearby fields to the drain.

#### MODEL NO. 4

In addition to all the items covered under Model No. 3, in this model rough levelling of the fields has been envisaged, so that water application is improved upon and excess water may be drained properly. The present field boundaries are quite wide and it is suggested to trim these boundaries to the minimum, thereby increasing the cropped area. With the provision of field drains and levelling, excess water will find its way [out] and land submerged with water and infested with typha can be ploughed and put to cultivation.

#### MODEL NO. 5

The soil in the Chambal Command Area has got the slow infiltration rate and, therefore, it is advisable to use the sub-soiler once in four years. The experience shows that there will be improvement in structure of the soil and infiltration of water.

In all the above models, the packages suggested to have a lot of influence on field improvement but to keep up this influence 50-60 per cent of the cost incurred in development will be required every year for maintenance of the system.

In subsequent models, the field drainage in a catchment at valley lines is demarcated and irrigation system laid out on ridge lines without having any consideration of field boundaries. Although this has an effect on field boundaries needing slight realignment, this has many advantages like reduction in cost of field drains, watercourses, field levelling and efficient use of agricultural machinery and land.

#### MODEL NO. 6

In this model no structure on watercourses and drains are to be

provided. Only fords have been provided to take care of bullock-cart crossing over drains or watercourses. Approach to the fields has not been provided and as such transport of produce, fertilizer, and other similar items would be difficult. In this model, the maintenance cost would be more.

#### MODEL NO. 7

In this model there is a provision of a few essential structures so that farm machinery may reach the farm in fair weather. The water control would be possible but there are feasibilities of field bunds giving way at any time, either due to excess irrigation or due to heavy rainfall in short periods. Field approach would be difficult."

#### MODEL NO. 8

This model meets the reasonable technical requirements with regard to all the on farm items except lining of watercourses and desirable structures needed by the farmer to take up crop cultivation with good standards. The maintenance cost on this model would be comparatively less than in other models explained above. Some amount shall have to be spent on maintenance of watercourses, drains and approach roads.

#### MODEL NO. 9

This is the best model technically suitable for each farm having proper shape of the farm and better control structures for irrigation and drainage. There is no possibility of erosion in the field and water can find its way through the drainage outlet pipes. The field approach roads have been provided and it will be possible to reach fields quickly after rains. The land levelling and shaping will be of very good standard and subsoiling shall be done for better infiltration rate. The maintenance is estimated to cost not more than 1 to 2 per cent of the development cost each year. Looking to the present education of the farmer this model will suit best because it takes care for the negligence and carelessness of the farmer in management of water.

TABLE 7.1

**Various Items Under Each Model and their Costs**  
(as per 1973-74 calculations)

Sl. No.	Items	Cost to farmers per hectare		
		Class of land		
		I	II	III
1	2	3	4	5

*Model No. 1*

1.	Provision of main drainage	}	Nil	}
2.	Improvement of Govt. irrigation distribution system so as to provide right quantity of water at the right place and right time			
3.	Warabandi system of irrigation			
4.	Kyari (bed) system of irrigation on fields			
5.	Upgrading of village roads			
6.	Provision of effective agricultural extension service and necessary inputs.			

*Model No. 2*

1.	All the items under Model No. 1	—	—	—
2.	Remodelling and extending existing field watercourses to each field	65	65	90

*Model No. 3 (a)*

1.	All the items under Model No. 2	65	65	90
2.	Connecting depressions to main drainage system by shallow surface drains to cater for largest stores in 5 years period	75	50	50
		140	115	140

*Model No. 3 (b)*

Construction of shallow surface  
drain on correct technical alignments  
passing through farmers' field and  
connection to main drain.

*Model No. 4*

1. All the items under Model No. 3	140	115	140
2. Rough levelling in the fields where necessary	175	225	375
3. Reshaping of field boundaries to reduce the existing width and size.			
4. Reclamation ploughing (weeds & typha)			
	315	340	515

*Model No. 5*

1. All the items under Model No. 4	315	340	515
2. Subsoiling fields once in 3 years (Rs. 20/- per year)	150	150	150
	465	490	665

*Model No. 6*

1. All the items under Model No. 1	—	—	—
2. Field realignment	100	100	100
3. Provision of small field drains (surface run off only for five years recurrence)	110	110	110
4. Fords provided in place of culverts	30	30	30
5. Realignment and reconstruction of watercourses	110	125	140
6. Minimum rough field levelling inclusive of typha and weeds ploughing	175	235	345
	525	600	725

*Model No. 7*

1. Items 1 and 2 under Model No. 6	100	100	100
2. Field drains with minimum structures	175	225	275
3. Remodelled watercourses with minimum structures	150	225	275
4. Rough levelling and grading inclusive of typha and weed ploughing	175	250	375
5. Spoil from drain smoothed to make farm track	35	35	35
	635	835	1060

*Model No. 8*

1. Item Nos. 1 and 5 under Model No. 7	135	135	135
2. Field drains with optimum structures	415	600	835
3. Remodelled watercourses with optimum structures	250	625	1125
4. Field grading at optimum level with deep ploughing wherever necessary	200	500	1250
	1000	1860	3325

*Model No. 9*

1. All the items under Model No. 1	—	—	—
2. Field realignment	250	250	250
3. Field drainage system	560	780	1000
4. Irrigation system with lined watercourses and syphon tubes	840	1300	1800
5. Land levelling, grading, ploughing and subsoiling	250	900	2250
6. Field approach roads	120	120	200
	2020	3400	5500

Yearwise Phasing Case calculated in 1973-74 of additional net returns from 4-hectare holdings after development under different classes of land is as follows:



TABLE 7.2

Land Class	Net returns before development	Yearwise additional net return after development				
		Years				
		I	II	III	IV	V
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Model No. 1</i>						
Class I	2000.00	450.00 (15)	900.00 (30)	2250.00 (75)	2550.00 (85)	3000.00 (100)
<i>Model No. 5</i>						
Class I	2000.00	750.00 (15)	1500.00 (30)	3750.00 (75)	4250.00 (85)	5000.00 (100)
<i>Model No. 6</i>						
Class I	2000.00	1235.00 (15)	1950.00 (30)	4875.00 (75)	5525.00 (85)	6500.00 (100)
<i>Model No. 8</i>						
Class I	2000.00	1221.00 (15)	2442.00 (30)	6105.00 (75)	6919.00 (85)	8140.00 (100)
<i>Model No. 9</i>						
Class I	2000.00	1320.00 (15)	2640.00 (30)	6600.00 (75)	7480.00 (85)	8800.00 (100)

*Note:* Returns of Class II and Class III lands are 70 per cent and 50 per cent respectively of those of Class I land. The figures in parenthesis are percentage increases of returns in respective years. It may also be noted that 4-hectare holding represents a larger than average size of a holding. The average in Chambal, Rajasthan Command Area would be 2 to 2.5 hectares.

Another major aspect of that was decided during the UNDP Project and one which has strengthened the Rajasthan CAD implementation was the decision<sup>8</sup> that both the Area Development Commissioner and the Additional Area Development Commissioner have full control over the officers incharge of Irrigation (Maintenance, Operations and Repair as also Canal Capacity Works), of Drainage, of Land Development (On Farm Development), of Agriculture Extension and Research, of Credit and Cooperatives, of Land Revenue and Records, so that the Full Package On Farm

Development can be achieved without the organizational and coordinatory problems being faced in many other States today.<sup>9</sup> The decision to appoint an Officer on Special Deputy (Credit) on deputation from the Reserve Bank of India has also enabled a good system of OFD loaning from commercial banks unlike many other States where budgetary resources are still being used for OFD work.

Roughly stated, the organisation may be depicted as in Table 7.3.<sup>10</sup>

Now to turn to the present model (based on model numbers 7, 8 and 9) of Full Package On Farm Development on a catchment basis.<sup>11</sup>

The first stage is the selection of catchments where land development works are to be undertaken. As per the Rajasthan Land Development Corporation Act<sup>12</sup> legal powers for enforcing land development exist. However, it has been decided to try and obtain farmers' consent before undertaking the work. Thus the Extension<sup>13</sup> and Land Revenue Wings of CAD first identify sites where farmers' willingness appears to exist. Thereafter the Land Development (LDP) Wing of CAD checks up with the Irrigation Wing about availability of adequate quantity and suitable levels of water in the area, and with the Drainage Wing about availability of suitable outfall from proposed field drains to the carrier or main drains. The Land Development Wing then checks the areas from the point of view of its technical suitability for Full Package On Farm Development keeping in mind the consideration that the cost of work should be within the farmers' repayment capability.

Thereafter camps are held in the concerned villages to confirm farmers' willingness as well as to ascertain the percentage of farmers eligible for commercial bank loans. If the eligibility is low then land records updating and government dues recovery drives may be required in the area.

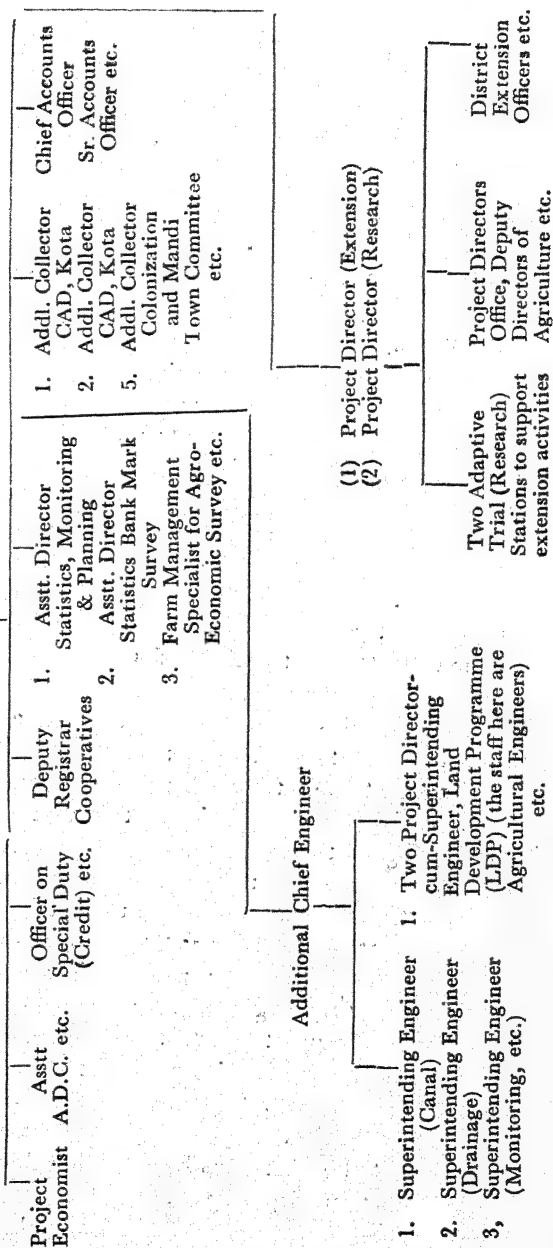
Simultaneously aerial photographs, ground topography and social surveys, and revenue maps, as well as site visits by Land Development Wing and discussions with Irrigation and Drainage Wings have been used by the LDP Wing as a basis of the preparation of a chak file.<sup>14</sup>

A typical chak file contains: Cadestral and Land classification information, layout maps of the present irrigation and drainage systems, and of the proposed On Farm Development Works, as well as the following costs:

TABLE 7.3

**Area Development Commissioner (ADC)**

**ADDITIONAL AREA DEVELOPMENT COMMISSIONER**



Adopted from Annual Report 1974-76 of the Project

(1) Cost of realignment of field boundaries *i.e.* breaking existing watercourses and property bunds and constructing new property bunds;

(2) Cost of reverse grading and regrading per hectare for total area and total unit area to be covered under reverse grading and regrading (including rough levelling).

(3) Length, total cost and cost per hectare (*ha*) of constructing new watercourses as per proper alignment and of structures to be provided on watercourses;

(4) Length, total cost and cost per hectare of constructing new field drains and cart tracks along field drains, as well as structures to be provided for field drains; and

(5) Engineering and administration charges, physical contingencies, crop compensation charges etc.

These chak files are forwarded to the Rajasthan Land Development Corporation (RLDC) for technical scrutiny. If RLDC approves of the check file it is sent to the Agricultural Refinance and Development Corporation (ARDC) of the Reserve Bank of India. ARDC approval is followed by the RLDC issuing technical sanction of the work.

Simultaneously the chak file has been forwarded to the Drainage Wing (which starts construction of the corresponding Main/Sub-Main Drains and Carrier Drains if necessary), the Irrigation Wing (which starts canal capacity works to ensure proper water availability in the selected catchment), the Credit, Revenue and Cooperative Wings so that cultivator lists may be prepared to be followed by individual cultivatorwise cost estimates, statements of dues and overdues against the cultivators and commercial bank loan applications. Notices have also to be served on the farmers formally informing them that work shall be done in the catchment.

On Farm Development documentation camps are organized for getting the loan applications and bank documents signed. All Wings of CAD and the Regional Manager, RLDC as well as Agricultural Finance Corporation and the Commercial banks participate in such camps. As soon as 50 per cent farmers are found eligible the matter is referred to RLDC which issues the financial sanction. The original Project report envisaged financial sanction only after 70 per cent eligibility has been achieved; however, this condition has been temporarily relaxed.

Only upon receipt of technical and financial sanction from RLDC should the LDP Wing start actual catchment develop-

ment work. However, since the system has not yet been fully institutionalized, at times the work has to be started in the field in anticipation of technical and financial sanctions. Commercial banks release the loan amounts to RLDC only upon receipt of technical and financial sanction.

The Rajasthan Land Development Corporation provides the Project with interim finance and is reimbursed by the commercial banks as per the loans sanctioned by them to the farmers in proportion to the partial or full completion certificates giving amount of work done. For farmers ineligible for commercial bank loans, the RLDC sanctions Special Loans directly to the farmers at a slightly higher interest rate. Efforts to convert Special Loans to ordinary loans are also made. The repayment of the loans is to take 13 to 15 years. Small farmers' and marginal farmers' subsidies are also made available to lessen the burden of OFD loans on such farmers. In addition in case the loan is likely to exceed Rs. 2,750 per hectare due to bad quality of pre-development lands, then a "disadvantaged farmers subsidy" of Rs. 300 per hectare is also made available because the post-development repayment capability of an average farmer has been calculated as Rs. 2,750.

The On Farm Development work is done with the help of labour as well as with heavy earth-moving machines some of which require to be imported. Hence the entire procedure of inviting and processing tenders, placing orders, getting import licence and foreign exchange released and procuring the machines should have preceded start of OFD work. However, not all machines have been acquired yet. Hence hired machines are used wherever available. While machine procurement is looked after by a separate engineering division, two divisions of Land Development Programme exist for operation and maintenance of the machines. At present, six On Farm Development construction divisions are in existence and two more are being created as it is felt that one construction division can do survey, planning and construction in 1,200 hectares per year, and 10,000 hectares per year is now planned as the regular recurring annual target.

The machines most in use are elevating scrapers, hydraulic scrapers, hydraulic excavators, ditchers, bulldozers, graders, heavy tractors, romo plough, disc plough, disc harrow, land plane, and the like.

An effort is made to concentrate the machines being used in three or four areas in the Command area at anyone time for con-

venience in transporting diesel and fast moving spare parts and maintenance of the machines as well as supervision of their use. Hence the larger catchments are sometimes broken up into smaller blocks for purposes of execution.

In case execution of OFD takes more than three months then crop compensation has to be paid. The economics per hectare of the various crops is calculated to form a yardstick for the Additional Collectors, CAD, to assess the crop compensation. The Additional Collector, CAD, uses the previous five years Girdawari (crop inspection record) to determine the average areas under each crop cultivated by a farmer and, after hearing RLDC and the farmer, gives the award. RLDC pays the crop compensation. The amount of crop compensation is paid at special camps in the concerned villages where an effort is made to recover part of the compensation paid from farmers having high overdues or dues, so that the number of farmers eligible for commercial bank loans increases.

Since property boundaries are realigned as part of OFD, the Additional Collector, CAD, has to reallocate the land as per land slope directions given by the LDP Wing. Reallotment is done in such a way that each new field has a watercourse on one side of it and a field drain and cart track (each drain has a cart track on both sides) on the other and the slope is in the general direction of the field drain. Each watercourse has drains on either side to cater to the needs of all the fields irrigated. The reallotment plans are prepared with the help of surveyors and discussed in special camps in the villages. Some consolidation of holdings is also attempted during this process. After post OFD reallotment new property bunds have to be constructed and new survey numbers given to the new fields and accordingly a fresh Jamabandi (record of rights) has also to be prepared.

When the OFD work is completed the fields are handed back to the farmers after testing of the new watercourses. However, such work can never be perfect. Also after the first monsoon some settling of the disturbed soil can take place. Similarly, some farmers may feel dissatisfied with the reallotment work done. Hence, an institutionalized system to listen to farmers' complaints and to rectify them is also gradually being built up.

Since centralized accounts are maintained only in the Chief Accounts Officer's Wing and different agencies are involved in the work, special meetings have to be called to finalize the catchment-

wise accounts, so that the final individual costs and loan liabilities may be determined.

Recovery of special loans is the responsibility of the Government, hence the project staff fully participate in it. Efforts are also made by the Project staff to help commercial banks in the recovery of OFD loans given by them.

In case any Wing of CAD finds itself facing any operational problems, then they are discussed in a weekly "Monday Meeting" of heads of all Wings of CAD presided over by either the Area Development Commissioner or the Additional Area Development Commissioner. This is a meeting without a predetermined agenda and its discussions and decisions are seldom recorded in writing. However, verbal instructions are given and the desired coordination achieved. This device has proved very successful in practice.

Special extension messages and proper land water management practices, for example, Warabandi and border strip irrigation<sup>15</sup> are also required if the full benefit of OFD is to be reaped by the farmers—Water Users' Association may have to be set up for this.<sup>16</sup>

Such Water Users' Association may also be given the task of maintenance of watercourses, field drains, and cart tracks in the developed catchments. (At present no permanent arrangement for such maintenance exists as the Project only goes back for one time repairs after the first monsoons.)

In fact even during OFD construction work an attempt is made to involve the villagers by organizing weekly meetings of CAD officers with the villagers of the catchment. However, this experiment, started in October 1978, has not yet proved fully successful and the farmers' participation is sporadic.

In the Chambal Rajasthan area spreading ravines threaten to damage the developed catchments. Hence for Phase II (1980-81 to 1986-87) of the World Bank Project a scheme of Protection of Developed OFD Table Lands is being proposed where Agricultural Engineering (Soil Conservation) and Afforestation shall be used for ravine stabilization to protect the developed areas.

After a description of the procedure of land development on a catchment basis it would be appropriate to mention some of the problems before ending.<sup>17</sup>

Farmers are not easily agreeing to get On Farm Development work done, especially the big farmers who may earlier have been drawing more than their fair share of water due to water indis-

cipline, or who may have indulged in illegal land mortgages. Both get checked due to On Farm Development. Also farmers do not easily agree to their land being changed as happens in land development. Farmers also press that the work should not be done at their cost but should be done at the cost of the Government.

The canals are today not running as per designs, *e.g.*, they may have become wider thus requiring more water to maintain the Full Supply Level (FSL), hence technical coordination becomes difficult and the level of water in a canal may be eventually found to be such that the watercourse cannot draw water. Because of this danger over-caution is called for at the planning stage, but officers of the various Wings of the Chambal Rajasthan Project who come from different departments do not always succeed in rising above traditional inter-departmental rivalries and departmental styles of functioning.

Officers are used to working with budgetary resources and following government financial rules. Sometimes they find it difficult to work under the constraint of institutional finance where no revised sanctions are possible once a loan has been sanctioned. Commercial bank, and government officers also have trouble in understanding each other's working cultures, points of view and problems.

The land and water management and actual benefits from the catchment development work normally receive lower priority than completion of physical construction targets and booking expenditure as per financial targets. Engineering work is naturally found easier than eventual operation and management of the system. This, of course, is true for other projects also.

As a result, farmers have some genuine grounds for complaint. But farmers have also developed a habit of making spurious complaints. This is because they have managed to avoid paying betterment levy for the original canal system through such complaints and feel that if they similarly persist with complaints now they may be able to avoid repaying the OFD loan. In fact, in Bundi district some rural leaders are attempting to organize an agitation against recovery of OFD and other government and cooperative bank dues.

The large number of complaints has also worsened inter-Wing relations as each wing tries to pass the buck on to some other Wing. Hence, an attempt is now being made to evolve a regular system for dealing with the large number of complaints.

The centralized stores and purchase organization never feels



the same urgency as the field execution agencies for acquiring spare parts and materials. This can become vital as the land development work has to follow crop seasons (to avoid payment of crop compensation for more than one season for one catchment), and also because during the monsoons most areas become unapproachable so works cannot continue (in fact, even the heavy machines may get stuck). Any work left incomplete before the monsoons may get washed away during the rains, so OFD work is always done under pressure of time. Hence, attempts at better inventory control are underway.

The cost of OFD is rising much faster than farm incomes. Hence, a stage may be reached when the farmer becomes incapable of repaying the OFD loans. This cost is rising not only because of cost escalation (inflation etc.), but also because each farmer presses that some big machine run on his field even if it is technically not so necessary. Sometimes such pressure prevails also. Another problem is that initially farmers at times refuse to get land levelling done, but after the fields have been returned to them they change their mind and request land levelling causing a return of engineers and machines to an area previously completed. Thus overhead costs increase.

Some of the commercial banks' eligibility criteria are too rigid and are currently being renegotiated with the banks by the Project authorities and RLDC.

As the system has still not settled down reimbursement to RLDC of loan amounts sanctioned by commercial banks is lagging behind. This results in excessive pressure for interim finance on the RLDC.

The problems are many—too many to all be listed here. However, with each passing year the solutions being found increase and procedures get more institutionalized. Hence perhaps one day this programme may cease being a special programme and become a routine and institutionalized work of government performed without much difficulties. Till then the Area Development Commissioner and the Additional Area Development Commissioner have had to adopt the practice of personally involving themselves in the detailed working of each stage of OFD related work to ensure that the work proceeds smoothly. This practice at times has to be adhered to even at the cost of slackness in the supervision of some other component of the CAD Project.

## Notes and References

1. For some idea of other Projects see—
  - (a) *Handbook on On Farm Development*, Agricultural Refinance and Development Corporation, Bombay, 1977.
  - (b) J.P.B. Baudelaire in *Proceedings of the National Workshop on Water Management and Control at the Farm Level* (mimeo), February-March, 1978, F.A.O. Regional Office for Asia and the Far East, Bangkok, Thailand, July, 1978 (though K.S. Park's article "Land Consolidation and On Farm Work in Selected Countries of the Region" in the same volume contains factual errors in the description of the Chambal Rajasthan Project).
  - (c) *Proceedings of the Workshop on Integrated Agriculture Development in the Command Areas of Irrigation Projects*, Kanpur, February-March, 1978, being published by Indian National Science Academy. A preliminary report of the same has been published as "Effective Land Water Management" by Rakesh Hooja in *Rural Development Digest*, Vol. 2, No. 3, July, 1979.
  - (d) *Kurukshetra*, Vol. XXVI, No. 14, September 16, 1978 (Special Number on Command Area Development—Its concept, constraints and course of action).
2. Most present CAD Projects are those where water shall be (or is now being) made available for irrigation for the first time, hence the emphasis there is on the speedy construction and lining of watercourses, so as to bring more land under irrigation. In Chambal Rajasthan, on the other hand, existing watercourses have to be erased and drainage as well as better watercourses and land levelling provided to improve land already being irrigated. This is another difference between Chambal Rajasthan and other projects.
3. For details of this section see (1) *Terminal Report—Soil and Water Management Project India—Project Findings and Recommendations* (mimeo), UNDP-FAO, Rome, 1974; (2) *Project Report on*

*Development of Area Commanded by The Chambal Project* (Green Book) (mimeo)—Office of the Commissioner, Chambal Development, Kota, August, 1972. The draft chapters of the Feasibility Report for Phase-II for Chambal Rajasthan Project (1980-81—86-87) mimeo have also been consulted.

4. *Appraisal Report of the Chambal Command Area Development Project (Rajasthan) in India*, I.B.R.D.-I.D.A. Washington, May 29, 1974.
5. This note, culled from office files, has also been included in one of the draft chapters of the Phase-II Feasibility Report currently under preparation.
6. In fact, Full Package On Farm Development only "took off" in 1977, three years after the World Bank Project had started and only did so due to the special efforts in the field of the then Additional Area Development Commissioner, B.L. Maharda.
7. Cost on all the items of works is to be borne by the Government which may work out at 1973-74 prices to Rs. 1,800 to 2,400 per hectare. The reference to Class I, Class II, and Class III land in this table refers to land categorization as per land slopes and undulations in the land.
8. The first order concerning this is the order of the Chief Secretary, dated 25th July/6th August, 1974, setting up a Command Area Authority, with the Area Development Commissioner as its Chairman, and spelling out functions and powers of the Area Development Commissioner.
9. K. K. Singh, "Alternative Organizational Strategies for Command Area Development", *Proceedings of the Commonwealth Workshop on Irrigation Management-Hyderabad, India, October 17-27, 1978*, mimeo, Commonwealth Secretariat, London (no date) has stated, on the basis of a study of CAD Organizations in six States, that "the Rajasthan pattern is an 'ideal-type' for a CAD Organization providing excellent coordination and linking from the Authority upwards to the State and deep line penetration to the field". His finding are based on a study of the Rajasthan Canal Projects CAD organization. This author however feels that the Chambal Rajasthan Organizational structure is perhaps more integrated and contributes to even better coordination than the Rajasthan Canal Model, because both the Commissioner and the Additional Commissioner exercise much more control in actual practice.

10. For more detailed organizational charts see (1) Rakesh Hooja, B.N. Maheshwari and S.R. Mittal, "CAD and On Farm Development in Chambal Rajasthan Project", paper presented at a workshop on Effective Management of Rural Development at HCM State Institute of Public Administration, Jaipur, October, 1978, and revised version published in Satish Batra (ed.) *Administration in An Indian State* (Associated, 1982) and (2) Rakesh Hooja, "Rural Credit in CAD Areas—SFDA and OFD Loaning", paper presented at Winter School on Integrated Agriculture Development in Command Areas of Irrigation Projects at Kanpur, February-March 1979, and being published as part of the proceedings (Note 1 refer 3).
11. This section is based on the author's experience as Additional Area Development Commissioner of the Project. In addition he has also consulted (1) the Appraisal Report (Cf note 4); (2) *Design Manual for On Farm Development Works*, CAD Chambal, February, 1977; (3) and (4) papers referred to in note 10; (5) Rakesh Hooja and S.R. Mittal "CAD and S.F. D.A. Loaning Problems and Procedures at the Field Level", paper presented at a seminar on Institutional Financing of Special Programmes at Poona, August 1978, and reprinted in *Financing Agriculture*, Vol. X, No. 4, January-March, 1979; (6) B.N. Maheshwari "On Farm Development in Command Area Development Project Chambal Rajasthan", paper presented in Winter School (see note No. 10), *op. cit.*; (7) Draft chapters of Phase-II Feasibility Report (mimeo); (8) Handing over note of S.R. Mittal, former Officer on Special Duty, of 2nd May, 1979 (mimeo); (9) *Command Area Development* (mimeo), papers and case studies of a Training Seminar, HCM State Institute of Public Administration, Jaipur, August-September, 1976; (10) Kanta Ahuja (ed.) *District Planning in Rajasthan*, HCM SIPA, 1977; (11) Papers presented at Workshop on Land Development and Efficient Land Water Management, Kota, May 1979, and being compiled for publication.
12. Act 17 of 1975 of the Rajasthan Vidhan Sabha which has given RLDC (a Rajasthan Government Corporation) the right to get this work done by any agency. CAD Project is their chosen agency. *See paper by Bhupendra Hooja in this volume*, [Ed.].
13. (1) Rakesh Hooja, "T & V in Rajasthan—An Attempt at Better Downward Communication Through Agriculture Extension"

- in *The Administrator*, Vol. XXIII, Nos. 3 & 4, 1978 (July-December); (2) B. Hooja (a) "Agriculture Extension—A New Programme for Training to All Levels", *Kurukshetra*, Vol. XXVII, No. 7, January 1, 1979, (b) Some Aspects of "Agriculture Administration in Rajasthan" in Satish Batra (ed.), *Administration in an Indian State* (Associated 1982); (c) "People's Participation and Agriculture Development" in Ramesh K. Arora, *People's Participation in the Development Process*, HCM State Institute of Public Administration, 1979, give some idea of the agriculture extension machinery in the Command Area.
14. The term Chak file is a misnomer borrowed from other Command Areas where the Chak is the unit of work. Actually the catchment development plan file in Chambal Rajasthan is called a Chak file.
  15. See Rakesh Hooja, "Efficient Land Water Management: A Forestatement to the Workshop" presented at the Workshop in Kota in May, 1979 (C.F.—note 11 reference 11), and Rakesh Hooja, "Effective Land Water Management"—a View for Chambal Rajasthan", paper presented at a Seminar on "Water Resources Management" at HCM SIPA, Jaipur, August, 1979 and now published in *The Administrator*, Vol. XXV, No. 4, 1980.
  16. See B. Hooja, "Beneficiary Participation in Irrigation—Sinchai Groups at the Watercourse Level", paper presented at Kota Workshop, May 1979, in the *Administrative*, Vol. XXIV, Nos. 3 and 4, 1979 (July-Dec.). (Notes 11 and 15, *op. cit.*, A number of other papers on this subject were also presented at the Workshop.
  17. Also see K. Gopalakrishanayya, "An Integrated Approach to Command Area Development Programme, *The Indian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. XXV, No. 1, Jan.-March, 1979, for a theoretical discussion of some problems of CAD.

## 8

# Plan Coordination Machinery

Manohar Singh Mogra

WHEN independence came, India had a slender industrial base. Millions of her rural people suffered under the weight of traditional agrarian structure. A long period of economic stagnation *vis-a-vis* the growing pressure of population followed by the burdens of World War II had weakened the Indian economy. There was widespread poverty. The partition of the country had uprooted millions of people and dislocated economic life. It was in this period that the State of Rajasthan was formed as a result of the merger of 22 princely States. It inherited a legacy which had hardly any parallel in the country.

On the eve of formation of the State of Rajasthan, peculiar administrative and socio-economic conditions prevailed in the State. The constituent parts functioned under Administrations of varying degrees of efficiency and uniformity coupled with weak agriculture-based economy dependent as it was on the vagaries of the monsoon. The then rulers were primarily concerned with the governance of their States and not with the prime task of economic growth. Very few of the covenanting States had undertaken any significant programme of development except of the development of their capital towns and some other important commercial or religious places. Other areas were in a very sad state of neglect. Following its formation, the important problems facing the State included the restoration of law and order, stabilization of the State's finances and the establishment of uniform and rational system of Government. In the year 1951, not only were the circumstances for economic growth difficult but even the basic social services and amenities, which were already available in most other parts of the country, had to be provided *de novo*. No coordinated effort had been made to derive economic benefit from the land under plough. The irrigated area was only 10 lakh hectares from all sources, *viz.*, canals, tanks and wells. The total foodgrain production was around 29 lakh tonnes. The vast mineral resources had remained unexploited and no in-

centives for establishment of industrial units were available. The power available in the year 1951-52 was only 8 MW and the total number of localities electrified was 42 out of a total of over 33,000. The per capita consumption of power was about 3 units. The means of communication were woefully inadequate and only a few big capital towns could boast of colleges and hospitals. The percentage of school-going children to the total population in the age group of 6-11 was only 16.6. The supply of potable drinking water in the rural areas had not even been conceived of and only five big towns had the facility of filtered water supply. The welfare of the weaker sections was in a state of total neglect.

The promise of freedom could only be redeemed if the economic foundations were greatly strengthened. It was essential to rebuild the rural economy, to lay the foundation of industrial and scientific progress and to expand education and other social services. This called for planning not only at the State level but also on a national scale, encompassing all aspects of economic and social life, for efforts to mobilize resources, to determine priorities and goals and to create a widespread outlook of change and technological progress. Thus, planned development was the means for securing, with the utmost speed possible, a high rate of growth, reconstructing the institutions of economic and social life and harnessing the energies of the people to the tasks of national development.

#### NEED FOR PLANNING MACHINERY

In view of the federal structure of the country, the State Governments have considerable share both in planning and in implementation. While the Centre assumes a role in the formulation of policy and overall plans, the States take on steadily expanding administrative and development functions. As such, planning even at the State level necessarily involves decisions on major policy issues to which the entire administration, including the Council of Ministers and the Legislature, contributes. Further, in each field of activity, a great deal of detailed planning is required before schemes can be executed and, therefore, in most of the important departments, there is some machinery for planning. Taken in its wider sense, the organizational structure for planning would be deemed to cover the political leadership, the Secretariat, as well as the Departments entrusted with developmental activities. The need for an organized planning administrative structure was felt for the first time when the work on

the First Five Year Plan was taken up in the State in 1951 but until 1953, there did not exist any effective and competent machinery for judicious formulation and coordination of developmental activities at the State level.

#### ORGANIZATION OF THE PLANNING DEPARTMENT

The principal organization or the main agency responsible for overall planning and coordination of developmental activities in the State is the Planning Department of the Secretariat. In July 1953, this Department was created under the charge of the Chief Minister but subsequently Planning portfolio was with either the Finance Minister or some other senior Minister. Since 1961, as an important link with the Administration and the Cabinet, the Chief Secretary holds the office of the Secretary of this Department. Prior to this, the Development Commissioner-cum-Additional Chief Secretary was leading this organization. Presently, the Chief Secretary is being assisted by a full-time Special Secretary who in turn is assisted by four Deputy Secretaries—one incharge of Perspective Planning, Monitoring, District Planning and Minimum Needs Programme, the second in charge of Evaluation and Manpower Planning, the third in charge of Institutional Finances and the fourth one being responsible for Plan Formulation and Inter-Departmental Coordination. Each Deputy Secretary is assisted by several junior officers and a complement of Subordinate Staff. Directorates of Economics and Statistics, Manpower and Evaluation, Government of Rajasthan, are attached offices.

In 1973, the State Government constituted a State Planning Board with the Chief Minister as its Chairman for formulating Plans and evaluating Plan performance. It advised the State Government on the following subjects:

1. Perspective planning;
2. Overall strategy of development;
3. Priorities of sectoral planning within the framework of a national plan and keeping in view the scientific and economic data available in this connection;
4. Initiating economic studies to improve the data base and the quality of project formulation;
5. Guiding the overall evaluation of the implementation of Plan schemes;



6. Identifying regional imbalances in the various sectors of development and proposing concrete measures for progressive reduction of such imbalances;

7. Evaluating the progress of Plan programmes and suggesting corrective action, where necessary; and

8. Guiding programmes of Area Development and District Planning.

The Planning Board met casually but in order to enable the members to be associated more closely and usefully with the Planning mechanism of the State, following seven working groups were constituted:

1. Implementation and Monitoring.
2. Resource Mobilization.
3. Irrigation and Power.
4. Agriculture and Allied Sectors.
5. Livestock and Dairy Development.
6. Transport, Industries and Mineral Development.
7. Social Services.

With the changeover of the Government since the last general elections, the Planning Board is to be reconstituted.

#### PLAN FORMULATION

Annual Plans are drawn up in the context of Five Year Plans. Work on Annual Plan precedes preparation of the State budget. Each Annual Plan seeks to provide not only scheme-wise outlays for the following year but also includes preliminary action regarding investment, benefits of which are intended to accrue in later years. For this purpose, the Planning Department holds a series of meetings each year in August/September with the representatives of the Administrative Departments and Heads of Department concerned with planning to discuss:

1. the requirements of committed expenditure on continuing schemes;
2. funds required to meet the commitments already made by the Government;
3. funds required to maintain the tempo of development; and
4. new programmes likely to be taken up in the coming year, if resources permit.

After a series of meetings with the representatives of the Departments concerned, the inescapable expenditure under plan for

the next year is worked out by the Planning Department. The Planning Department, in consultation with the Finance Department, meanwhile, makes an assessment of the available resources and also suggests ways in which the resources can be increased in the next year. Keeping in view the commitments already made and the physical needs of development for all sectors, the Planning Department submits a tentative ceiling for the Annual Plan, including sector-wise and department-wise break-up, to the Minister for Planning. While suggesting this sector-wise break-up, the distinction between sectors in which plans are formulated in terms of physical possibilities or the measures of development that can be achieved constitute a major determining consideration. Broadly, agriculture, industries, irrigation, manpower, technical and professional education may be said to fall within the first group, and social services within the second. So far as the present plans are concerned, emphasis is laid on the sectors falling in the first group but the importance of investment in human resources is being increasingly felt and it is suggested that in subsequent plans, the social aspect of planning should receive equal priority with economic aspect. It is true that in initial plans, the dilemma of reconciling objectives with resources is a real one. However, after the size of the plan and the sector-wise break-up has been approved by the Minister for Planning after discussions with the Ministers concerned if felt necessary, a Memorandum is submitted to the Council of Ministers for consideration and approval. After approval of the Council of Ministers is obtained, all the Departments concerned are given an indication about the financial allocations and are requested to furnish detailed proposals to the Planning Department for scrutiny and approval. The Heads of Department not only keep in view the main guidelines received from the Central Planning Commission for the preparation of the draft Annual Plan but also the following aspects:

1. The assessment of the progress both in financial and physical terms of the last year's plan;
2. The expected fulfilment of the current year's Annual Plan;
3. Spill-over expenditure of the current year and other unavoidable plan expenditure to honour the commitments already made;
4. Utilization of the infrastructure already created;
5. Completion of projects in hand; and
6. The need to fill up essential gaps for further development.

Again, after a series of meetings with the Departments concerned, the Planning Department finalizes the scheme-wise proposals and the draft Annual Plan is sent to the Planning Commission. These proposals are discussed by the Working Groups, constituted by the Planning Commission with the representatives of the Central Ministries, the State Government and the Planning Commission. Based on the recommendations of the Working Groups, the Secretary, Planning Commission, suggests sector-wise allocations to the Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission. After about a month or so, these proposals are finalized by the Planning Commission in consultation with the Chief Minister and the State Ministers in charge of Planning and Finance. The modifications that become necessary as a result of these discussions in the Planning Commission are carried out by the Planning Department and sector-wise/department-wise allocations are communicated to the Heads of Department for the preparation of the forthcoming Budget. Along with these allocations, the minimum outlays earmarked for the World Bank-assisted projects like command area development, dairy development, drought-prone area programme, agricultural extension, etc. Tribal Sub-Plan area and the Minimum Needs Programme are also indicated. Outlays on some of the sectors/schemes are also earmarked.

The Budget details of all plan schemes are discussed in what are known as Budget Finalization Committee meetings. The meetings are convened by the Deputy Secretaries concerned of the Expenditure branch of the State Finance Department and are attended by the representatives of the Administrative Departments, Heads of Department concerned and the representative of the Planning Department normally not below the rank of Deputy Secretary. On the basis of decisions taken in these meetings and after the minutes are approved by the Financial Commissioner (*i.e.* Finance Secretary) and Finance Minister, the details are incorporated in the Budget. After the Budget has been presented in the legislature and voted the Heads of Department are again requested by the Planning Department to prepare final scheme-wise details showing the various components of capital and revenue heads on the basis of the details incorporated in the Budget. The Planning Department again holds a series of meetings with the Heads of Department and the representatives of the Administrative Departments, and after compilation of data, brings out a publication entitled "Annual Plan". This publication contains scheme-wise financial and physical details

for the State Plan as a whole as also for the World Bank-assisted projects. Tribal Area Sub Plan, Drought Prone Area Programme, Small and Marginal Farmers' Agencies Programme, Minimum Needs Programme, Centrally-sponsored schemes and Institutional Finance. This publication also contains district-wise break-up, both financial and physical, of all the schemes. The copies of this publication are sent to the Planning Commission, all Central Ministries, Administrative Departments of the Secretariat, Heads of Department and the district authorities. This publication has been found to be very useful for the Collectors who are also working in Rajasthan as District Development Officers. It helps them a lot in discharging their duties as officer incharge of overall development, coordination and monitoring at the district level.

#### PLAN IMPLEMENTATION AND COORDINATION

The Planning Department keeps a close watch on the progress of implementation of Plan schemes. The executing authorities are required to send monthly, quarterly and annual progress reports to the Planning Department at regular intervals of 30 days, 45 days and 60 days, respectively. These programmes are carefully scrutinized and if the performance in any particular scheme is found to be below standard or highly abnormal, then reasons for the same are ascertained from the Secretary to the Government and the Head of Department concerned. If the reasons given by the Departments are not convincing or if there is no immediate prospect of improvement in the performance, the matter is brought to the notice of the Chief Secretary for appropriate action. If the progress is retarded on account of certain inter-departmental difficulties, a meeting of the officers concerned is called by the Chief Secretary to resolve them. In addition, the Secretaries of all the Departments are required to hold quarterly meetings with Heads of Department concerned and a representative of the Planning Department. In these meetings, the quarterly progress report is discussed, problems are sought to be removed by mutual discussions, and the cases of shortfall or additional requirements are highlighted. For effecting better coordination between Agriculture Refinance and Development Corporation schemes of minor irrigation and rural electrification programme of the Rajasthan State Electricity Board, there is a Standing Coordination Committee under the chairmanship of the Development

Commissioner-cum-Secretary, Agriculture and Allied Sectors. The representative of the Planning Department is also a member of this Committee.

The State Government has constituted State Level Planning and Development Coordination Committees for all important sectors of development. These Committees have been reconstituted with effect from January 15, 1977, and now their number stands at 12 as shown below:

(1) Agriculture Production, Forest, Cooperation and Community Development (including Soil Conservation, Warehousing and Marketing).

(2) Animal Husbandry and Dairy Development.

(3) Drought-Prone Areas Programme.

(4) SFDA/MFAL and other programmes of Special Schemes Organization.

(5) Irrigation and Power.

(6) Rajasthan Canal Project, including its Command Area Development.

(7) Chambal Project, including its Command Area Development and Tribal Sub-Plan.

(8) Industries and Mines.

(9) Tourism, Transport and Publicity.

(10) Roads, Buildings, Housing and Urban Development.

(11) Education, Social Welfare and Labour.

(12) Medical and Public Health, including Water Supply.

These Committees are presided over by the Chief Secretary and include the Development Commissioner for Committees at Sl. Nos. 1 to 7 and the Agriculture Production Commissioner (*i.e.* Agriculture Secretary) for Committees at Sl. Nos. 1, 3 and 4 to 7, and the Special Secretary, Cooperative, for the Committees at Sl. Nos. 1 to 4. The Financial Commissioner (*i.e.* Finance Secretary) and the Special Secretary, Planning, are the Standing members for all the Committees. A decision was also taken on February 21, 1977, that the Desert Development Commissioner would be a regular member in the Committees at Sl. Nos. 1 to 3. The Special Secretary, Planning, acts as Member Secretary of these Committees. It may be mentioned here that in Rajasthan there are no Divisional Commissioners. There are Commissioners for Command Area Development of the Rajasthan Canal and Chambal Projects respectively, Desert Development and Tribal Area Development, but they have no general adminis-

trative or law and order functions. Apart from reviewing the compliance report based on the decisions taken in the last meeting, the progress of individual sectors/schemes is also reviewed in detail. Thereafter, various other agenda items received from different Departments are discussed and decisions taken. The decisions of this Committee are treated as final decisions of the Government unless the Committee itself decides to submit a particular matter to the Minister concerned/Council of Ministers for orders. The decisions of this Committee are pursued regularly by the Planning Department and for this purpose the Special Secretary, Planning, is assisted by the Deputy Secretary, Planning, and the Deputy Director (Economics and Statistics) in charge of coordination work. These Committees have proved to be very useful institutions and have been responsible for smooth and efficient implementation of plan schemes. The membership of these Committees is broad-based and all the Departments concerned are invited to attend the meetings. For instance, in the Coordination Committee for Agriculture, the Irrigation Department, the Community Development Department and the Cooperative Department are also represented in order to enable these Committees to take a final decision in respect of all inter-related matters. The Committees, thus, exercise wide powers and discretion and act as effective instruments of coordination amongst all Departments.

For evaluation of certain projects, the Directorate of Evaluation conducts evaluation studies and submits reports to the Government for follow-up action. For effecting better coordination, the Director of Evaluation has been given the ex-officio status of Deputy Secretary in the Planning Department.

As a part of regular monitoring of important programmes, the Status Reports in respect of the following programmes are prepared in the Monitoring Cell of the Planning Department and submitted to the Planning Minister and the Chief Minister regularly for appropriate action:

A. *Agriculture and Allied Programmes:* (1) World Bank-assisted Dairy Project.

(2) Afforestation in Rajasthan Canal Command Area.

(3) Rehabilitation of degraded forests.

(4) Small and Marginal Farmers Development Agencies.

(5) Command Area Development, Rajasthan Canal Project.

(6) Command Area Development, Chambal Project.

(7) Drought-Prone Areas Programme for Jodhpur and Nagaur.

B. *Irrigation and Power*: (1) Rajasthan Canal Project.

(2) Mahi Project.

(3) Jakham Project.

(4) Power Transmission Lines: (a) 220 KV s/c Dadri-Khetri line. (b) 220 KV RAPP-Kota III Circuit.

C. *Industry and Minerals*: Rajasthan Industrial and Mineral Development Corporation (which manages the industrial estates established for small and medium industries, and also is the public sector partner in joint ventures with private sector).

D. *Transport and Communication*: Roads.

E. *Social and Community Services*: Rural Water Supply Schemes (excluding "diggies").

The Planning Department is also responsible for effecting co-ordination amongst various Departments and for taking initiative in any matter in which more than one Department is involved. All important communications received from the Government of India on development matters, which concern more than one Department, are dealt with by the Planning Department. Similarly, the references to the Government of India on developmental matters from the State Government, in cases where more than one Central Ministry is involved, are normally channelised through this Department.

As the Planning Department is finally responsible for the preparation of Annual Plans, any change(s) in the scheme-wise allocations or the ceiling of any sector has/have necessarily to be made with its approval. All cases, therefore, proposing diversion from one scheme to another or from one sector to another are referred to the Planning Department for a final decision. The Planning Department, because of the special status it enjoys being directly under the Chief Secretary, is in a position to take an overall view which is not coloured by any bias for any Department and, therefore, all important matters of policy concerning developmental activities are referred to the Planning Department for advice.

The Directorate of Manpower attached to the Planning Department is primarily responsible for estimating requirements of various types of technical/professional personnel in relation to their availability. This Directorate had prepared forecasts on the requirements and availability of technical and professional personnel like Graduate Engineers, Diploma Holder Engineers, Doctors, Agriculture and Animal Husbandry Graduates, etc., and keeps on reviewing the position regularly. The Planning Department, while preparing the

Five Year Plans and the Annual Plans, gives due regard to the recommendations made in the reports of the Directorate of Manpower. This Directorate also prepares an annual review of shortage of technical personnel so that the forecast made at the beginning of the Five Year Plan could be modified in the light of the experience gained. The requirements for training of Government personnel in the country and abroad are examined by the Deputy Secretary, Manpower, and all cases of deputation of officers for training are processed in the Directorate of Manpower. To avail of the various foreign training programmes provided by the World Bank, under the Colombo Plan and various Exchange Programmes with other countries, panels of names are drawn up regularly, cleared by a Committee presided over by the Chief Secretary, and names are sent to the Government of India almost as soon as request for names is received. A large number of officers in administrative as well as technical services of Rajasthan have thus been given the opportunity to attend training courses abroad.

#### COMMAND AREA DEVELOPMENT

Intensive development of agriculturally potential command areas of major irrigation projects is receiving greater attention these days. For the first time, the State Government took up integrated development of the two command areas, namely, the Rajasthan Canal and Chambal, with effect from July 1, 1974. For ensuring effective coordination amongst different development departments, the Government has set up the Command Area Development and Water Utilization Department at the State level headed by a Commissioner-cum-Secretary reporting to the Minister for Agriculture. The Rajasthan Canal Project area work is with the Chairman, Rajasthan Canal Board, who is also Commissioner and Secretary for Irrigation and the Chambal Project work is with the Development Commissioner. Both these Commissioners are assisted by a common Special Secretary and Deputy Secretary. A State-level Coordination Committee for Command Area Development and Water Utilization has also been set up under the Chairmanship of the Chief Minister and includes Ministers and Secretaries of concerned Departments. CAD and W.U. Department in the State Secretariat primarily deals with the formulation and monitoring of the Command Area Development Projects in the State.



In order to carry out the inter-disciplinary programme in a coordinated and efficient manner a unified project organization under Area Development Commissioner, one each for R.C.P. and Chambal, has been created. The project organization directs and controls all the activities of the Irrigation, Agriculture, Colonization, P.W.D. (Roads), Water Supply and Cooperative Departments, as well as coordinates programmes of other departments dealing with rural development in the Command Area. In all developmental matters within the Command Area, the Area Development Commissioner is the controlling officer for all Collectors and Revenue Officers including Colonization Officers in the Command Area. A separate head of expenditure and a separate budget for Command Area Development has been created in the State Budget and it covers non-plan and plan expenditure.

The State Government has also set up a Command Area Authority for each project—R.C.P. and Chambal—under the respective Area Development Commissioner. The functions and responsibilities of this Authority are:

- (1) Maintenance and efficient operation of the water delivery system from the source to the farm outlet.
- (2) Planning and executing programmes of land development within a catchment area (including realignment and lining of water-courses, land levelling, soil reclamation, field channels, etc.), through institutional finance and otherwise.
- (3) Enforcement of proper system of "Warabandi" and fair distribution of water to individual fields.
- (4) Development of ground water to supplement surface irrigation.
- (5) Selection and introduction of suitable cropping patterns.
- (6) Supply of all inputs and services including credit.
- (7) Development of marketing and processing facilities and communications.
- (8) Preparing individual programmes of action for small farmers, marginal farmers, and agricultural labourers.
- (9) Diversification of agriculture through livestock development, horticulture, farm forestry, etc.
- (10) Programme of protective forestry for canals, roads and farms, pasture development of uncommanded lands, fuel wood plantation, etc.
- (11) Town planning, rural housing, development of existing and new villages and marketing centres.

The Rajasthan Land Development Corporation is acting as a financial intermediary for the On Farm Development works in the projects. Sufficient staff, both technical and non-technical, has been provided at Headquarters to assist the Managing Director in discharging his duties efficiently. Regional Branch Offices have also been established at Bikaner and Kota. Land development works are being executed by the Project authorities and are being financed through long-term loans from Commercial Banks which in turn are refinanced by the A.R.D.C. Disadvantaged farmers get Government of India's subsidy and for Government land, the State Government finances it.

#### DROUGHT-PRONE AREA PROGRAMME (D.P.A.P.) AND DESERT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

The DPAP covers the districts of Jodhpur, Nagaur, Pali, Jalore, Barmer, Jaisalmer, Bikaner, Churu, Banswara, Dungarpur, three tehsils of Udaipur district, two tehsils of Jhunjhunu district and one tehsil of Ajmer district. Desert Development Programme covers the districts of Sikar, Jhunjhunu, Jaisalmer, Barmer, Bikaner, Jodhpur, Pali, Jalore, Ganganagar (Nohar and Bhadra tehsils only), Nagaur and Churu. One of the major objectives of these programmes relates to rural orientation to the general programmes of agricultural development. The main programmes relate to preparation of shelf of projects for soil and moisture conservation, development of ground water sources through construction of tube-wells, afforestation of barren hills and rehabilitation of degraded forests, sheep development, cattle and dairy development and construction of extra high-tension transmission lines for carrying power to the interior parts of the State mainly for energizing tube-wells/deep wells and running the milk-chilling plants. While the programmes are being carried out by the respective Departments of the State Government, the funds for these works are channelised through the District Development Agencies with the District Collector as Chairman. The Collector is assisted by a whole-time Project Director. Funds channelized through DDAs are non-lapsable. In order to coordinate the activities in the desert areas of western Rajasthan, there is the post of Desert Development Commissioner. At State level the Special Schemes Organization, with the Special Schemes Commissioner-Cum-Secretary as head, has overall responsibility for

plan formulation and implementation. He is assisted by a number of Senior Officers from various disciplines. The Development Commissioner also coordinates the activities of the S.S.O. with other agriculture and allied activities.

#### TRIBAL AREA DEVELOPMENT

The tribals in Rajasthan are varied in ethnic composition and cultural pattern. Bhils, Minas, Gharasias, Seharias, Demors form the main Scheduled Tribes. These tribals are largely concentrated in entire Banswara and Dungarpur districts, southern half of Udaipur district, Pratapgarh tehsil of Chittorgarh district, Abu Road block of Sirohi district and Shahbad block of Kota district. At the State level the Special Schemes Organization specifically and the Development Commissioner-cum-Secretary are mainly responsible for the preparation of tribal sub-plan and overall coordination. The Development Commissioner is assisted by a whole-time Deputy Secretary. For overall plan formulation, coordination and monitoring, a Tribal Area Development Organization has been created with headquarters at Udaipur and is headed by the Tribal Area Development Commissioner. All the programmes under different sectors of development have been grouped in the State budget under one demand and all sanctions are being issued by T.A.D. Commissioner only. The programmes in the field are being executed by the concerned Departments but at times funds are also routed through concerned DDAs and SFDAs. In the districts, the overall responsibility of coordination and monitoring of the various programmes is that of District Collectors.

For making available credit facilities and developing marketing organization, a Tribal Area Development Cooperative Corporation has also been set up with headquarters at Udaipur under the Chairmanship of the Tribal Area Development Commissioner and with a whole-time Managing Director.

#### SECTORAL PLANNING

The programmes relating to each individual Department are prepared and monitored by the Head of the Department who in turn is assisted by a Senior Officer incharge of planning. He is assisted by a small cell. This cell is required to function in close collaboration with the Accounts cell of the Department. These programmes are also scrutinized and examined from all angles by the Administrative Departments in the Secretariat. The Secretaries to the Government

are assisted by technical personnel as well as officers in charge of planning in their organizations. Generally these officers keep close liaison with the Planning and Finance Department in the Secretariat and also with the Planning Commission and concerned Ministries in the Government of India.

Looking to the advantages of corporate sector, several important programmes in the State are now being looked after by autonomous Boards and Corporations or Companies under the Companies Act, important amongst them being Rajasthan Agro-Industries Corporation, Rajasthan Agriculture Marketing Board, Rajasthan Sheep and Wool Board, Rajasthan Cooperative Dairy Federation, Rajasthan Land Development Corporation, Rajasthan State Mines and Minerals Ltd., Rajasthan Industrial and Mineral Development Corporation, Rajasthan Financial Corporation, Rajasthan Small Industries Corporation, Rajasthan Khadi and Village Industries Board, Rajasthan State Road Transport Corporation, Rajasthan Tourism Development Corporation, Rajasthan Bridges Corporation, Rajasthan State Cooperative Housing Finance Society, Rajasthan Housing Board, State Social Welfare Board, etc. The activities of the Boards and Corporations are coordinated at the State level by the respective Secretary to the Government.

Thus it may be seen that right from the level of executive Departments to the Cabinet, there is adequate apparatus for plan formulation, progress appraisal, monitoring, evaluating and reformulation of plan schemes. All these stages constitute different phases of planning, which is a circular process wherein each stage feeds the succeeding stage and is fed by the preceding stage.

Plan formulation envisages estimation of inputs and outputs against the goals set out to be accomplished by adopting specified strategy and approach. The plan finalized for implementation, thus, serves as the basis for the succeeding stages by providing time schedule for the flow of benefits and costs and for the monitoring and assessing programme content for purposes of appraisal and evaluation. Progress appraisal makes qualitative assessment of performance in relation to targets, while monitoring is still broader in the sense that it also includes qualitative assessment of the extent to which the objectives are being achieved. The resource allocation and priority structure envisaged in the plan act as the reference points for studying the imbalances caused therein at the time of implementation and for suggesting corrective measures needed for bringing the plan back

to the stipulated schedule, if possible, or to make readjustment in the original plan. It is in this sense that progress appraisal and monitoring serve as feedback for reformulation of plans. Evaluation is still wider inasmuch as it makes performance assessment of plan schemes in different environments for ascertaining the magnitude as well as the cause of success and failure, time-lag, distribution of impact/benefits against the overall goal, which serve as the basis for improving future programmes.

For continuously improving the process of plan progress appraisal, monitoring and coordination serve as the key measures. It was mainly with these considerations in view that the coordination committees for different sectors had been constituted 'for discharging these functions. The Chief Secretary acts as the Chairman and the Special Secretary, Planning, as the Member Secretary of these Committees so that the decisions could be based on complete information and competent advice and, thereafter, implemented in the right spirit.

Within the broad framework of the developmental strategy for the Five Year Plans, often the planner has been confronted with the difficult task of assigning priorities to investment and laying down targets for outputs which will determine the final shape of the economy. Our planning has to operate under conditions of great uncertainty. It is concerned with the development of a mixed economy in which many important economic decisions are left to the private sector. The attitudes and modes of behaviour of the private sector are incapable of being planned in advance. Furthermore, the uncertainty of resources, which is the basis of investment planning, makes it difficult to determine priorities in a scientific and logical manner. Broadly, however, the planning effort has been directed towards a more effective utilization of resources—both human and material—in order to obtain a larger output of goods and services. The objective has relied for its fulfilment on the approach of accelerating growth and increasing national income.

Without belittling the achievements that have been made in different fields, some of the specific major shortcomings of the planning process are listed below:

(1) The successive Five Year Plans tended to assume higher levels of investment in real terms and, consequently, a much higher growth than warranted by objective considerations. As a major result, there has been a growing gap between plan projections in certain sectors and actual achievement.

(2) The plans could not make any allowance for fluctuations in agricultural output within the plan, nor was there a machinery for adjustment of the plans to unforeseen external events. The consequence was that plans were disrupted by inflationary crises and the unplanned cuts in developmental outlay necessitated thereby resulted in disruption of plan priorities.

(3) Given the character of the mixed economy, planning of the large self-employed sector in agriculture, household industry and services was minimal. The private corporate sector could be given incentives or regulated but targets were only indicative since firm production and investment plans were initiated by the sector itself. In addition, in the past there were major slippages even in the public sector plan where targets were set.

(4) In the past it was attempted to have development in all sectors and in all areas which proved to be very much beyond our resources. The result was that the available resources were diluted and the programmes were so diffused that they failed to make a substantial impact.

(5) In our anxiety to satisfy the demands of all the areas in the shortest possible time, often a large number of schemes were taken in hand without considering the available resources. This naturally resulted in delay in the completion of the continuing schemes and prevented us from getting the benefits.

(6) While broad targets were fixed for the State as a whole for executing developmental programmes, the criteria for accepting individual proposals were not determined and this led to haphazard growth and regional imbalances in development.

(7) In our enthusiasm to develop quickly, greater emphasis was given to expansion programmes leading to deterioration in quality. As a result of this, policy institutions started by the Government were generally ill-equipped and the resources required for their consolidation were diverted for expansion programmes.

(8) There has been evidence of lack of coordination between inter-related programmes of different Departments. For instance, we have not been able to evolve an integrated programme of credit and supply of essential inputs for agriculture and cooperative departments. Similarly the programmes of rural electrification which is designed primarily for increasing agricultural production has been implemented at times without considering potential for ground water development in different areas and it has not been possible to

coordinate effectively the programme of loans to cultivators for purchase of pump-sets with that of the energization of wells.

(9) A number of schemes were initiated without sufficient examination of their economic feasibility and the estimates of cost generally were found to be very much on the low side. Consequently the returns expected from the execution of these schemes did not materialize, thus causing a severe strain on the State Exchequer and subsequent depletion of the resources available for development.

(10) The financial allocation and physical targets were fixed for the State as a whole and their distribution to the different regions was not done on any rational basis. This has led to growing regional imbalances and certain areas have been persistently neglected in certain sectors.

These deficiencies call for further strengthening of the planning machinery at all levels, particularly to take up area specific development programmes. In addition, some major investments in water and power development, basic industries, transport, etc., can be planned keeping the State as a whole in view but most of the investments in agriculture, minor irrigation, animal husbandry, fishery, forestry, cottage and small-scale industries, social services, etc., are clearly amenable to planning at the local level. Further the availability of funds from institutional sources and Food for Work Programme has all the more made it necessary for local level planning. There will be need to integrate area plans with the local resource base and with demand patterns at the local and inter-regional levels. Project formulation and planning expertise will be necessary in the near future at this level. Professional expertise will have to be inducted at all levels and training programmes will have to be organized even at the field level nearest to the working conditions.

From what has been stated above, it can be seen that at the District and State level planning, the entire administration including the Council of Ministers and the Legislature contributes and the State Planning Department works closely with the Administrative Departments in the Secretariat and is in a position to draw fully upon the technical personnel and organization of the Heads of Department. Likewise, at the District level, the District Collector coordinates and monitors all the developmental programmes. For area specific and special programmes separate machinery has been created. As a matter of fact much work is done jointly. Even then looking to some of the failures of the past much needs to be done in the near future.

## 9

# Research and Development in Public Works Department (Buildings and Roads)

Pramod Lauria and M.K. Saxena

RAJASTHAN was divided into 22 Princely States and principalities prior to achieving independence in 1947. These small States had their own set-up to look after the public buildings and roads known as *Mahakama Imarat* in most of the States. When Rajasthan State was formed after integration of these princely States, the need was felt for creating a State-level Organization for integrated and orderly development of the network of roads, bridges and public buildings in the State. The Rajasthan State PWD thus came into existence in 1947. At the time of its formation, the assets of the Department were road length of 13,553 km, out of which 5,144 km was surfaced. There were only four bridges of span more than 60 metres. Residential houses for the Government employees were very few and very small number of office buildings existed. The Department since then has adopted very healthy traditions and has contributed its share in the overall development of the State. The progress achieved in various fields of its activity is evident from the fact that up to the end of March, 1980, the road length in the State is 39,747 km, out of which 29,116 km is surfaced. This shows a 500 per cent increase. The number of bridges with span over 60 metres has increased to 81. The progress achieved is not only quantitative, but qualitative as well. The methods of construction have since been improved through research and other developmental activities of the Department.

### INNOVATIONS IN PLANNING TECHNIQUES

*Designing for roads:* The adoption of *ad hoc* specifications and route locations for highways has been gradually replaced by scientific methods of designing road crust thickness and proper geometrics. The strength of the sub-grade soil and the intensity of traffic now play a vital role in formulating the specifications for roads under different conditions of soil profile and the magnitude of traffic which a road is ultimately going to generate depending upon agricultural



and industrial potentialities of its origin, destination and the intervening area. The safety of road user and the user's cost of travelling is also now given a thoughtful consideration while planning, designing and constructing any road. Detailed designs on geometric aspects of roads are now being utilized by the field engineering in the State.

The network of the roads in the State has been categorized into National Highways, State Highways, Major District Road, Ordinary District Road and Rural Road. Their data has been processed and is available for easy monitoring and retrieval on punch-cards.

For proper financing and management of pavement (road surface) maintenance, the norms of funds required for maintenance covering various elements of the roads have been evolved. Detailed instructions regarding the phasing, labour and resources allocation and management of maintenance jobs have been prepared and made available in a book form to the field engineers. These instructions envisage pre-thinking and planning of the jobs required to be done by the Road Gangs deployed for maintenance.

In order to cut delay in the clearance of project proposals check-lists have been evolved which are a great help in preparation, scrutiny and sanction of the works estimates.

In order to adhere to the work schedule and targets, project management techniques like CPM, Analysis bar charting and line of balance are being applied to selected projects.

Improvements have also been made in planning housing estates and designs of residential and other government buildings, with a view to having higher utilization of space. This has been done keeping in view the efficiency of designs in terms of floor area and plinth area rates. The modular concepts and other provisions made in the National Building Code are also very widely used.

The Designs Cell of the Department works out the structural designs for all the buildings and bridges being constructed by the Department.

#### INNOVATIONS IN CONSTRUCTION TECHNIQUES

*Buildings:* The rule of the thumb earlier adopted for arriving at the designs of foundations has now given place to the use of more scientific methods to evolve more durable and economic foundation structures. Methods like standard penetration tests, plate load tests

and triaxial testing of soil samples are widely applied for foundation designs of buildings. This has resulted in economy in the cost of construction of buildings. It was a tradition to provide DPC (locally known as *Dasa*) irrespective of the location of the water table etc. Economy has been achieved by dropping it out from the specifications wherever not required. The setback (locally known as *Khaska*) is also not kept at the plinth level now resulting in the better aesthetical appearance. In traditional buildings the thickness of walls was mostly  $1\frac{1}{2}$  feet and more. On the basis of calculations and experience this thickness was reduced to 1 foot for most of the buildings up to three storeys. This has resulted in substantial savings. The significant buildings, e.g., Albert Hall, S.M.S. Hospital, Maharaja's College in Jaipur and elsewhere all have ashler or coursed rubble stone facing. Though gorgeous in looks these facings are prohibitive in terms of cost. Very pleasing aesthetic effects have been created by replacement of these techniques with use of random rubble for exposed stone facing. The buildings constructed for the Malviya Regional Engineering College (MREC) are the example of this innovation. The use of locally available lime which has been practised in the State for ages has not only been continued, but with constant efforts to improve the uniformity and quality, this age-old practice has been further improved. As we are all aware, the production of lime suffers from the setback of lack of uniformity and adherence to the uniform specifications. At most of the places the lime available is of magnesium type which is not very suitable for building purposes. In the past, bullock driver stone wheel (locally known as *Gharat*) was used to effect improvement in properties of lime mortar. Mechanical grinders have been evolved which give a high turnover of mortar per hour as compared to the mortar turnover in conventional *gharats*.

While the use of stone slabs for roofing have been continued in view of the economy and ease of construction where wide span is not important, improvements have been effected in the use of reinforced cement concrete and prestressed cement concrete as well. The use of concrete mixers, immersion and shutter vibrators, weigh batching, have all enabled producing good-quality, high-strength concrete.

Lime-terracing of the roofs for water-proofing has been resorted to in the State for centuries in the past. This age-old method makes use of manual labour for beating the layer of lime to make it dense and compact. This system however has its inherent disadvantages of

non-uniformity in compaction and longer time frame. To overcome these problems, the Department will now be switching over to the use of mechanized stamping machines for beating the terrace.

The age-old practice using stone *chokhats* (door frames) has been replaced by RCC chokhats which are more economical and have more aesthetically pleasing appearance. In fact these can be painted in the same colour as that of the walls and thus blend with it.

The cost of cement concrete and mosaic flooring has been reduced by replacing copper and aluminium strips with glass strips. Prior to this innovation, economy was achieved by laying floors in alternate squares, but this was very awkward and cumbersome. The glass strips add to the pleasing appearance of the floor.

In the construction of high-rise buildings the use of mechanized hoists has saved the human misery involved in carrying heavy construction material to higher floors. Another advantage of the use of hoists was found while constructing the second floor over the Rajasthan Secretariat Building. The construction could go on without disturbing the work on lower floors by movement of labour carrying materials.

One innovation to save carriage of heavy construction material to higher floors is the use of composite stone blocks for masonry. This technique consists of making composite blocks of the size 300 mm x 200 mm x 150 mm and 300 mm x 200 mm x 100 mm making use of small size stones spalls and lean concrete. These blocks do not involve the use of any complicated equipment and not even skilled labour. One *beldar* (unskilled worker) can cast 120 blocks in a day. Apart from solving the problem of handling, these blocks have advantages of higher strength, use of lesser mortar, reduced load on foundations and more floor area for the same plinth area. Earlier for making these blocks lean cement concrete was being used and, therefore, due to shortage of cement, they did not find much favour as compared to the stone or bricks used with lime mortar. The studies conducted further indicate that composite masonry blocks can be made with lime binder, in place of cement. It is, however, necessary that the compressive strength of lime surkhi binder should not be less than 20 kg. per sq. m.

Substantial savings could also be achieved by using standard quality steel shuttering as form work for RCC roofs thereby eliminating the application of ceiling plaster. In addition it also helps in giving better quality of concreting. Almost all of the roofing work

in construction of Malviya Regional Engineering College were poured over steel shuttering.

The use of C. I. spun pipes embedded in the masonry for drainage of the roofs has resulted in better appearance of buildings.

Economy has also been achieved in sanitary works by adopting single stack system of plumbing and use of P.V.C.

### HIGHWAYS

Fully aware of the fact that the safety of road traffic is improved in order of priority by measures as (a) improved design of vehicles, (b) improved road traffic discipline, and (c) improved methods of designing highways, the Department has adopted improved geometric design standard, for horizontal and vertical alignments. A separate Traffic Engineering Cell had also been set up in 1979 to conduct traffic studies on urban and rural roads, the improvement of accident-prone spots, preparation of comprehensive traffic plans for the cities, and improvements to and maintenance of the traffic signalling systems in the major cities. Road safety elements such as reflectors, cat's eyes, lane markings, boulevards are also being extensively used to help in avoiding accidents. The user's cost for transportation on the road is dependent to a great extent on its riding quality. This aspect is being covered by maintaining proper standards of surface evenness laid down for all types of roads. In cities and on some stretches of National Highways, high standards of surface evenness have been kept by laying premixed material from Hot Mix Plants through paver finishers. This not only ensures good and uniform quality of mix, but also gives a good finishing in the final product through Hot Mix. Since Plant and Paver finisher ensures very good quality, its cost is naturally high. But innovations made by the Department are all not costly.

Cost-consciousness in its work has been the prime aim of the Department. To this end, optimal use of locally available materials has been encouraged. In order to locate the hidden road material resources, use of Airphotos and Satellite images has also been resorted to. Field checks have been done by reconnaissance parties. A large kilometrage of roads has been built using locally available material such as *Kankar*, Gravel and *Dhandla* in the sub-base and in some cases even in base courses. Techniques such as mechanical and chemical stabilization and grafting have also been utilized to

improve the strength parameters of locally available materials. The research work on locally available materials is continuing. A research project R-1—"Survey of Locally Available Material"—has been taken up at a cost of Rs. 4.17 lakhs with the assistance of the Ministry of Shipping and Transport. New quarry sites are being identified with the help of existing Bore logs, Field reconnaissance, Air Photo interpretation, and interpretation of Satellite images. Land-sat images in the Infra Red Wavelength zones have been procured from the EROS Data Centre of the Geological Survey, United States Department of Interior, for Western Rajasthan area. Interpretation of Air photos has also been taken up in collaboration with the Jaipur unit of the Geomorphological and Remote Sensing Wing of the Geological Survey of India. Research work for improving the quality of locally available material is also in progress. Experimental stretches using eighteen different types of specifications have been laid on Kekri-Boaghara road in Ajmer Division and with 12 different specifications in Churu district, in collaboration with C.R.R.I. Test tracks using solid precast concrete blocks have been laid on Sujandesar-Karnisar road in Bikaner district. Use of hollow ribbed precast concrete blocks is being made to lay test tracks on the approaches to bridge at Mahajan on N.H. 11. Test tracks for cycle path using chemically stabilized quarry rubbish have been laid on Bhawani Singh Marg, Jaipur. Black Cotton Soil in Kota area is very treacherous for road building. In order to improve its properties as a subgrade and sub-base and bring it to required specifications, lime stabilization technique has been tried in a big way in the roads constructed in Chambal Command Area. In the same area Sand Moorum stabilization has been tried to improve the properties of local soil by addition of locally available *moorum*.

Construction of road stretches using techniques which have crossed the research stage and based on the recommendations of C.A.C. has been taken up for construction of roads in different climatic conditions.

The rule of the thumb used earlier for design of road crust have been replaced by scientific evaluation of the subgrade strength in the form of C.B.R. and use of the Curves giving relation between C.B.R. and crust thickness. Research is continuing to rationalize this empirical design approach which is based on number of commercial vehicles of more than 3 tonnes laden weight regardless of the axle weight they possess. For this purpose collection of compre-

hensive data about actual axle load distribution was taken up under a Research Project R-2—"Spectrum of axle loads". This study has been completed and it has been observed that 34 per cent of the vehicles were found to be having excess R.L.W. The percentage of single axle exceeding 8000 kg. is 20.19. The axle equivalency factor has been worked out as 1.744. This research scheme is financed by the Ministry of Shipping and Transport, which financed another research scheme, R-3, also to develop data on the growth of highway traffic in different regions for different category of roads. The first phase of this study which has spread over a period of one year from February 1, 1978, to January 29, 1979, has been completed and the second phase was taken up on May 1, 1980, and is in progress. These studies coupled with studies taken up by the Department under Research Scheme R-5—"Determination of Critical Moisture Contents"—in sub-grade under the pavements, taken up at an estimated cost of Rs. 2,90,000 will provide sufficient data to help us in evolving more rational approach for the design of crust thickness. Another research Scheme R-7—"Study of the efficiency of various measures including drains for lowering/cutting off of water table for different soils,"—is being taken up with the financial assistance of the Ministry of Shipping and Transport. In fact stretches of road using deep side drains and filter layers to cut off the capillary rise have already been tried on Udaipur-Ratanpur section of N.H. 8. The behaviour of this strength is being monitored.

Improvements in conventional specifications of road construction have also been adopted. Oversized metal has been adopted in place of conventional soling to have more dense material with better load spreading capabilities. Economy and improved workmanship has been achieved by using precoated chips for surface dressing. Trial sections are also being laid using Wet Mixing Macadam in place of conventional W.B.M. This will help in opening of the roads immediately for traffic after improvements and will give a more dense and better base course. Artificial stone in the form of *Jhama* ballast has been used in areas where long roads are involved for stone aggregates. Due to the shortage of Bitumen binder in the country, all the grades of bitumen are now not available. Investigations were carried out to prepare cutback and primers. A cheap handy equipment has been evolved to prepare these by fluxing with kerosene in pre-determined proportions.

In the construction and design of bridges also Rajasthan PWD

has been innovative. The conventional bearings have given place to the Neoprane bearings. Pneumatic well sinking methods have been made use of on Chambal Bridge at Dholpur. Pile foundations, hollow pier construction, box type return abutments, box type superstructure have been tried. The new technology of construction of retaining wall using relief shelves is being utilized at Kota. For construction of small culverts precast pressed deck slabs have been used for speedy execution and providing minimum diversion period for the traffic while improving existing culverts. Use of reinforced concrete pipes has also helped in speedier execution of cross-drainage works.

All this without adequate efforts on the quality control front would not have created the desired impact. The sensory methods of touch, smell and eye judgment for achieving quality were supplemented with a more rationalized and scientific base in March 1978, when a circular spelling out the tests, their frequency, and the requirement of test check at various levels was issued. In order to provide testing facilities to field staff in adhering to the prescribed frequency of test, seven fully equipped Regional Laboratories were established. The whole gamut of quality control with one Superintending Engineer at headquarters, six Executive Engineers and their staff at Regional levels, has been oriented to positive achievement rather than the negative technical examination. They provide testing support, monitor enforcement of instructions issued for quality control, carry out special investigations and take up research projects. They also help in disseminating knowledge about correct working methods and help in the training of the field engineers.

Training is a very important aspect of organizational development. To achieve this in PWD the job has been assigned to an Executive Engineer (Training). A training calendar is prepared at the beginning of the year, which encompasses the training needs of the staff right from Mates and Workcharged Staff to LDCs, Office Assistants, Office Superintendents, Garden Staff, Mechanical Engineers, Electrical Engineers and Civil Engineers. Workshops on quality control are organized at each regional headquarter once in a year. Training is imparted to Assistant Engineers, Junior Engineers and Sub-Engineers in these workshops. More than 600 officers have thus been trained in the last three years. The training effort of the Department has been made effective by active association with Universities and Research Organizations. The Central

Road Research Institute has provided training for two consecutive years to the Scientists working in the laboratories of Rajasthan PWD, through tailor-made courses for developing their capability in road material testing. Some officers of the level of Executive Engineers have undergone training in Senior Highway Engineers Course, the Assistant Engineers and Junior Engineers have undergone training in the Junior Highway Engineers Course. The Department also organized training courses for the laboratory staff in testing building materials at Roorkee in collaboration with the Central Building Research Institute.

In order to cultivate computer culture in the Department, a course was organized in computer applications at the Computer Centre of the University of Jodhpur in April 1980, when 15 engineers received training in programming and data processing for structural designs and commercial applications. Problems encountered in the field have been identified for being taken up as research projects at the Universities of Roorkee and Jodhpur. The University of Roorkee has accepted some problems for further research work.

The research and development activities of the Department are reported in a quarterly home journal *Srajan*. This publication was started in June 1979.

The field of research and development involves a continuous process. The Public Works Department, Rajasthan, under the guidance of its forward looking management, is pursuing this process with dedicated zeal and enthusiasm. The efforts being made in the direction of computerisation, building up firm organizational structure with trained staff, quality control and innovations and research are going to keep the flag of the Department flying high.



# 10

## Housing the Homeless—An Innovative Approach

K.K. Sarin and M.K. Saxena

HOUSING is an essential pre-requisite to promote the physical and mental well-being of the man within the family unit. Our country, however, suffers from an acute overall shortage of houses in urban as well as rural areas. This shortage was approximately 197 lakh units in April, 1979, as would be evident from the figures given below:

(Units in Lakhs)

	<i>Urban Areas</i>	<i>Rural Areas</i>	<i>Total</i>
1. Housing Requirement	897	258	1155
2. Usable Housing Stock	749	209	958
3. Housing Shortage	148	49	197

The estimated present-day cost of construction of these houses will be more than Rs. 16,000 crores.

The shortage of houses in urban areas is increasing day by day because of migration of people in large numbers from rural areas to urban centres. In Rajasthan also the problem of housing is equally acute. The population of the State is growing enormously—from 200 lakhs in 1961 to 334.5 lakhs in 1981 (projected). While population has grown at a fast rate the number of houses has not been added in the same proportion. In 1961 when the State had a population of about 200 lakhs there were about 32 lakh houses while the total number of houses required was about 38 lakhs, leaving the backlog of 6 lakh houses. The total population in 1971 was 257 lakhs, an increase of 57 lakh over 1961. Even assuming the family size of five, at least 11.4 lakh additional dwelling units were required

to be built between 1961-1971 to house the additional population. Total backlog in housing in 1971, therefore, was about 17.4 lakhs.

Prior to 1969, the measures taken to deal with the problem of housing shortage in urban areas were: (a) allotment of plots by the Urban Improvement Trusts and Municipal Councils, (b) development of plots by the Housing Cooperative Societies, (c) grant of loans by the Government under the middle and low income group housing schemes, (d) construction of houses under the Government Rental Scheme and (e) construction of houses under industrial labour housing schemes. The Improvement Trusts created in the big cities were in a position to meet only a very small fraction of the demand for plots of land. The funds available under LIGH and MIGH schemes have been extremely short of the demand. Same has been the fate of the other two schemes, *i.e.*, rental and industrial housing.

The plots of land developed by the Housing Cooperative Societies mainly remained in the hands of those persons who already possessed a house or a plot and had acquired the additional plot as an investment.

In the budget speech for the year 1968-69 the Finance Minister of Rajasthan mentioned that the Government of Rajasthan proposed to constitute a statutory Housing Board for granting loans under different housing schemes and for constructing housing colonies for middle and low income groups. Pursuant to this declaration the State Government formed a Committee under the chairmanship of Shri Dwarka Das Purohit. The Committee submitted its report on November 8, 1969, in which it recommended the creation of two institutions—(i) the Rajasthan Housing Board, and (ii) the Rajasthan State Cooperative Housing Finance Society.

The Rajasthan Housing Board was constituted with effect from February 24, 1970, with the object of undertaking measures to deal with and satisfy the need of housing accommodation in the State of Rajasthan. The Rajasthan State Cooperative Housing Finance Society was also constituted in the year 1971 with the object of financing the Housing Cooperative Societies.

The first year of the Housing Board was characterized by inactivity in the field of actual housing, but this was the year when its solid foundations were laid by framing regulations to cover disposal of property, conduct of business, enlistment of contractors and various service rules affecting employees of the Board. Rules were

also framed for (a) the preparation, maintenance and publication of accounts; (b) borrowing of sums by issue of debentures, and (c) employees provident fund etc. Housing schemes were also framed to mobilize funds. Action to acquire land too was initiated.

It was resolved by the Board that to begin with it would take up housing only in those cities which had a population of one lakh and above, provided there was registered demand of minimum one hundred houses. It was further decided that the Board would register its prospective purchasers every year during the months of July and September and it would allot houses to the registered eligible applicants by draw of lottery in the months of April and October under the supervision of the property allotment committee.

When it came to designing of houses for the persons belonging to the different income groups, *i.e.*, economically weaker section (income up to Rs. 350 per month), low income group (income between Rs. 351 and Rs. 600 per month), middle income group (income between Rs. 601 and Rs. 1,500 per month), and high income group (income above Rs. 1,500 per month) their requirement was ascertained through a dialogue with representative sample of people in these income groups. Thereafter, most economical specifications, making maximum use of locally available materials and minimizing use of scarce materials like cement and steel, were drawn up. Then the plot sizes were finalized keeping in view the cost of development. For each income group two sizes were selected to cater to the needs of people with different income within the same income group. All this information along with the setbacks, permissible coverage, orientation, wind direction, climatological data and social customs of people, was passed on to the leading architects to evolve suitable designs of houses.

Normally the architects are engaged on remuneration based on the percentage of the cost of construction. As the Board was required to construct a very large number of houses of the same design, the architects were required to quote their fees on lump sum basis and not on the percentage basis. This, incidentally, worked as an incentive to evolve the cheapest possible design of the houses. In the second year of the Housing Board's construction activity the architectural fees worked out to only 25 paise per house.

As far as possible contours were not disturbed and houses were constructed at different levels which resulted in substantial savings in earth work. Adequate provision in the land use was made for

utility services such as clear water reservoirs, overhead tanks, electric sub-stations, schools, dispensaries, convenient shopping facilities, district shopping centres, cinema halls, community centres, and post offices. Wherever necessary, provision for police station and petrol pump was also made. In the planning of houses of various categories, row housing was adopted for houses catering to economically weaker sections and low income groups while semi-detached houses were constructed for middle income group and high income group. In the first phase only single storey houses were constructed leaving provision for 100 per cent expansion by the owner who was desirous of constructing the first floor.

Innovative ideas were introduced in the organization of the Rajasthan Housing Board. The public man who had headed the Committee to advise the State Government to evolve its housing policy was appointed the first Chairman of the Board as he had already acquired vast knowledge about problems of housing. Being a public man he was better oriented towards the people and, therefore, the needs of the people were fully taken care of.

Besides mobilizing funds by floating debentures and securing loans from the Housing and Urban Development Corporation, the Board collected substantial amounts through the registration of prospective purchasers. They were required to deposit Rs. 500, Rs. 2,500, Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000 in the income groups of E.W.S., L.I.G., M.I.G. and H.I.G. respectively. The Board paid interest @ 6 per cent per annum to the depositors in order to encourage them to part with their savings. To quickly revolve the available funds, preference in allotment was being given to those who were prepared to pay the full cost across the table out of their own accumulated savings or by borrowing from their employers like government. In this manner the Board which started functioning with a meagre capital of Rs. 5.48 lakhs in 1969-70 raised its resources to Rs. 863 lakhs in 1975-76.

In order to satisfy the desire of each registered applicant to acquire a house of good quality in the shortest possible time, the field staff was made to devote all the time at its disposal to actual construction. In other words, the field staff was not required to do any of the administrative jobs, such as registration of prospective purchasers, preparation of schemes, award of works, etc.

Registration and allotment of prospective purchasers was handled exclusively by the Housing Wing of the Board at its Head

Office, which got the registration application forms printed, advertised the registration schemes, sold the registration forms, received the application forms along with challan of registration deposit, communicated the registration number to the applicants and allotted the completed houses through draw of lots after giving wide publicity.

The registration amount was required to be deposited by the prospective purchasers in the banks identified by the Board. The outright sale value and also the hire-purchase instalment of the houses were required to be deposited in these banks.

In order to provide facilities to the purchaser in depositing the hire-purchase instalments, the Board issued a book of challans with instructions to each purchaser so that at the beginning of every month he could directly deposit the amount in the bank. Such a simplified system resulted in better collection of the hire-purchase instalments.

Envisaging that the number of purchasers would soon go above 10,000 and it would be a difficult task at that stage to maintain the accounts of their instalments, etc., with conventional methods, to achieve efficient accounting systems computerization was introduced in the Board at an early stage. This resulted in quick postings of the cash books, issue of timely notices to the defaulters and preparing the analysis for the information of the management. It also enabled half yearly returns to be made available to the purchasers. Because of timely adoption of computerization the problem of retrenchment of staff was also not faced.

The preparation of tender documents, calling of tenders, negotiations and award of work was being done by the officers in the head office and not by the engineers in the field. The field engineers were also relieved of book-keeping including maintenance of cash book etc., by attaching an Assistant Accounts Officer with each Resident Engineer in-charge of a division. Normally in almost all the engineering departments of the government, payment is released to the contractor for the work done by him only after it has been recorded by an Overseer, checked by the Assistant Engineer and also by the Executive Engineer which process takes time. In the Housing Board the measurements were being recorded either by the Overseer or by Assistant Engineer before they were checked by the Executive Engineer, thus facilitating early payment. Further, the system of making payment based on standard measurements, instead of repeating detailed measurements every time, was introduced.

Normally 10 per cent of the payment due to a contractor for the work done by him is deducted as security deposit. This amount, which is very substantial for a small contractor, was, therefore, released to him after organizing a system of "Bank guarantee".

Such steps resulted in attracting small contractors who were originally masons. Though a big contractor could deliver goods without much effort and could provide better coordination at the level of field engineers of the board, the overheads of big contractors are normally high resulting in higher tender premium. The small contractor has smaller overhead and, therefore, can accept work at lower tender premium. Working successfully with them, however, requires lot of effort from the field engineers, in the form of quicker payments, secured advances against material procured and coordination between different agencies.

In order to economise in the cost of construction and to maintain the pace of construction even when scarce materials like cement and steel were wanting, profuse and optimal utilization of local construction material was resorted to. Houses were built with local stone, and stone-surkhi mortar, stone lintels, stone lofts and stone slab roofing, so much so that except for flooring no major component required use of cement in houses up to MIG category.

Improvements in the use of local building materials and local construction techniques were also brought about in collaboration with research organizations, (*e.g.*, Central Building Research Institute, Roorkee). For instance, substantial improvement in the quality of lime mortar could be brought about by resorting to grinding of mortar. Efforts were made to replace the age-old manual method of beating the lime terracing by mechanized beating with a stamping machine. Stone spoils were used to make composite stone blocks which resulted in more economic and efficient construction.

With a large number of contractors involved in big construction activity and extensive use of local materials, reliance could not be placed only on the methods of judging by vision, feel or smell. The materials which were obtained off the shelf did not pose much problem. These were tackled in two ways, *i.e.*, (a) by giving preference to the materials which bore test certificates or certification marks of national laboratories; and (b) by selecting standard products and utilizing the services of the firms' representatives to ensure proper use. For the paints which were used in large quantities, standard paint products were selected and the cooperation of the representatives of

the firms was sought. This had a three-fold advantage. The firms' representatives provided training with field demonstrations to the staff of the Housing Board and the painters and explained the proper methods of application. The firms' representatives also ensured that contractors were not using inferior material. This was possible (a) by cross checking the area covered and the paints supplied; and (b) the quality of work. It also brought down the prices because the reputed firms agreed to supply paint directly to the contractors avoiding the local agent and his commission. Adoption of this practice was resorted not only to the paints, but also to the electric cables, switches, GI pipes, SW pipes, wooden boards and sanitaryware. For the construction materials manufactured at the site like concrete, mortar, masonry, plastering, flooring, etc., field laboratories were set up at housing sites.

In addition, in order to achieve good finish, selected gangs of workmen were deployed. They were attracted by providing continuity of work and opening creche, school, dispensary, etc., at the site.

Clear-cut specifications also helped in maintaining good quality, and the feedback from test results of the field laboratories helped in updating the specifications, which in turn brought about economy in construction.

While constructing the houses, where made-up soil was encountered, open spaces were left as far as possible in order to avoid laying of foundation in weak soils. Avoidable earth work was saved by not disturbing the original contours and constructing houses at different levels.

In the planning of houses of various categories row housing was adopted for houses catering to persons belonging to economically weaker sections of society and low income groups. In view of the low-paying capacity of most of the prospective purchasers of houses in the various income groups such items which could conveniently be provided at a later date by the purchaser, such as wardrobe, shutters, fans, electric light fixtures, wire gauge shutters, etc., were not incorporated. While doing so the Board did not lose sight of the provisions to be built in the house during construction like hooks for ceiling fans, shelves in the wardrobes and door frames to avoid dismantling at any subsequent stage.

The prospective purchaser was also given the opportunity to keep track of the progress and quality of the house proposed to be

allotted to him by evolving a scheme in which houses were allotted at plinth level to those who opted for this scheme. In order to minimize complaints from the purchasers each and every house was got checked at the level of contractor, overseer and the engineer, according to a check-list evolved on the basis of thoughtful consideration and experience. This check-list enables a complete check-up of the house including even the minor items which cause inconvenience to the first occupier of a house.

In the Rajasthan Housing Board efforts were made in this way to see that the aspirations of people for owning a good quality house, within a shortest time frame after being registered with the Board and within their means, were taken care of. In order to make these efforts successful, innovative approach was adopted for building up systems in the organization, registration of applicants, evolving economic and efficient designs for the houses, mobilization of funds, utilization of local materials and quality control.



# Water Supply and Sanitation in Rajasthan

P.S. Rajvanshi

ONE important feature of the administration of Rajasthan is the almost total responsibility of the Government for construction and maintenance of drinking water supply in urban as well as rural areas. In the handling of waste water also, the Government had begun to play an important role.

Rajasthan is the second largest State in India, in area, covering 342,000 square kilometres or about 10 per cent of the area of the whole country. The State lies in the semi-arid and arid region of the country. To the west of the Aravali range is the Thar desert, inhabited by almost half of the entire desert population of the country. The eastern part of the State is partly hilly and partly semi-desert. Administratively, it comprises 26 districts, further sub-divided into 232 Panchayat Samitis. The total population of the State is 25.76 million as per 1971 census and is estimated to be about 30 million at present, which puts it on the 10th place. The present population density is 88 per square kilometre on average but varies actually from four in Jaisalmer district to almost 200 in Bharatpur district. More than 80 per cent of the population lives in 33,305 villages and the remainder in 187 towns. The five major towns—Jaipur, Jodhpur, Ajmer, Bikaner and Kota—accommodate one-third of the total urban population. The largest group of towns has a population of 10,000 per town. The other towns, therefore, are small having lesser population as compared to the population of the towns in Punjab and Uttar Pradesh.

## WATER RESOURCES

On account of its peculiar geological features and its geographical location, the climate of the State is characterized by a lot of diversities and uncertainties. The average rainfall varies from as low as 5 to 8 cm per year in desert areas of Jaisalmer district to 150 to 200 cm in the hilly area of Mount Abu. The flow of surface water in the

State is very typical. The Luni river and its tributaries are non-perennial originating in the Aravali ranges. This river forms the major drainage basin of the desert areas west of Aravali and it flows into the neighbouring State of Gujarat. In a major portion of the Luni basin, the water is highly saline. There is little surface flow, and that too in monsoon months. The Western Banas, Sabarmati and Mahi etc. also flow into Gujarat. In the south-east, there is a major river system consisting of rivers Chambal, Ahu, Kalisind and Parbati, Banas and its tributaries such as Berach, Khari and Morel. All these drain the waters of the eastern slopes of the Aravali into the Chambal. In the north-west part of the State the Gang, Bhakra and Rajasthan Canal systems bring the waters of the Sutlej river to turn the arid zones into granaries.

A study of the geological formations and their ages reveals that the ground water resources are limited in the State. The south, central and eastern part of the State is occupied by igneous and metamorphic rocks ranging in age from Archaean to Lower Vindhyan system comprising Banded Gneissic complex, Bundelkhand granite, Aravali system, Delhi system and post-Delhi intrusions. Calc-schists and granites occupy the hill range while schists, phyllites and slates generally occupy low-lying areas having thin alluvial mantle. Dug wells constructed in these hard rocks yield meagre discharge with shallow water table.

The eastern part of the State mostly comprises sandstone, limestone and shale formations belonging to Vindhyan system. These are hard, compact and relatively impervious formations. The wells constructed in these formations yield low to moderate discharge. Quality of water is relatively good.

On the western side of the Aravali ranges a thick sequence of sandstone and limestone has been deposited. The sandstones attain more than 100 metres thickness in the northern part of Jodhpur and wells in these formations have been found to yield 20,000 to 80,000 litres per hour of good quality water. The limestones, particularly of Borunda and Ransigaon region of Jodhpur district, have developed big cavities where water moves in turbulent motion. Wells tapping water bearing cavity yield as much as 500,000 litres per hour. Out of the geological formations younger in age to Vindhyan system, only Lathi sandstones, Parihar sandstones and Eocene sandstones have proved to be potential water-bearing formations. Tubewells in the Lathi series in Jaisalmer district have been found to yield 100,000

to 200,000 litres per hour of good quality water. In the northern region where water table is very deep and is generally 100 metres below the land surface, quality of water found in Eocene sandstones in Bikaner, Nokha region, is good. In Ganganagar district the salinity of ground water has been partly flushed by flow of water in the irrigation canal system. The water table near the canal has also risen.

#### EFFECTS OF WATER SUPPLY UPON PUBLIC HEALTH

Although health statistics are to be referred to cautiously because of different reporting procedures and of the unknown number of unreported cases, a conclusion may be drawn that the public health level in Rajasthan is below the Indian average. For example, infant mortality is more than 10 per cent higher than all India figure; there is high incidence of dysentery and infectious hepatitis. A particular feature in water-related diseases is the incidence of guineaworm. In Dungarpur, Banswara, Chittorgarh and Udaipur districts, the existence of guineaworm is highest. In some villages, each individual has suffered from this disease a number of times during his lifetime. Excessive fluoride has also taken a heavy toll of suffering among the people of some areas where skeletal and dental fluorosis is commonly found amongst villagers using ground water as source of drinking water. Population using fluoride water is generally seen to become old earlier than their age on account of its ill effect on human bones. Out of a total 33,305 villages in the State, 20,817 or almost two-thirds are supplied with water which must be considered hazardous to human health.

#### SECTOR ORGANIZATION

As early as in 1954 a separate wing under the Superintending Engineer (Health) of PWD (B & R) was created for carrying out the Public Health Engineering activities in the State. In the year 1965 a separate Public Health Engineering Department was created. This single organization is responsible for planning, construction, operation and maintenance of all urban and rural water supply systems. For its services, PHED collects water charges directly from the consumers.

As for waste water systems, except for some installations which have been recently carried out, generally, the operation and maintenance is the responsibility of the local Panchayat or Municipality.

The State Ground Water Department located at Jodhpur assists PHED in ascertaining the ground water sources and making them available with its drilling equipment.

A new institution under the name of Water Pollution and Control Board has also come into existence whose objective is to safeguard surface and underground water resources in particular from domestic and industrial pollution. It is the intention of the Government to further improve the sector work by allowing PHED to adopt its own constitution.

Recently in pursuance of Clause 3, Article 348 of the Constitution of India the Governor has been pleased to enact legislation for the formation of Rajasthan Water Supply and Sewerage Corporation. This legislation has since received the assent of the President of India on 10th December, 1979. This law has been enacted to provide for the establishment of RWSSC to facilitate rapid development of proper and regular water supply services and for performance of environmental engineering services in Rajasthan. This Corporation will now be mainly responsible for the development of water supply and sewerage sector in the entire State. Besides implementing new reorganization schemes in urban and rural areas, it will also be responsible for operation and maintenance of the schemes so far executed as well as future schemes yet to be executed. The Corporation will be responsible for designing a suitable tariff structure and to realize the revenue from its beneficiaries. It will review annually technical, financial and economic aspects of water supply and sewerage systems being operated by the Corporation itself or by Local Bodies which will have to enter into agreements with the Corporation. It will be empowered to take such loans from international and national financial agencies as are considered essential for extending and accelerating the programme in this sector. This programme, of course, would comply with the Government's planning requirements.

The Local Bodies, at the same time, would be encouraged to develop their own know-how for maintenance and operation of the schemes in future years to come. For the proper development of the sector it is essential that the water supply schemes are made self-supporting. Particularly in the urban sector, schemes should be able to bear the burden of debt servicing and meeting the depreciation cost. In case of rural schemes, to start with, the recovery from beneficiaries should meet only the direct operation and maintenance

cost of the scheme. It is essential to safeguard against utilization of revenues of the schemes in other sectors and for this purpose their accounts and funds should be separated from other accounts and funds of the Local Bodies.

It is essential to maintain and operate the sewerage schemes by the Corporation at 'No Profit No Loss' basis but at the same time to recover the debt service payments and to meet the depreciation charges.

One of the essential requirements for maintaining public utility concerns, such as water supply and sewage undertakings, is a closer rapport between authorities in charge of the undertakings and the general public. There has to be an understanding and appreciation of each other's difficulties. The grievances of the beneficiaries should be heard and steps for their amelioration taken as far as possible. At the same time, the public should be kept well informed of the undertaking's constraints and by what way they could cooperate for improving the service levels. A better public relationship can be established by providing the right type of personnel and by taking help of a well organized public relations wing.

#### PRESENT SERVICE LEVEL

*Urban Water Supply:* Rajasthan is one of the three States in India which have provided piped water supply to all its cities and towns. In all, there are 181 towns (including five large cities) that have been covered by piped water supply schemes. The total capital expenditure on urban water supply sector up to the end of the Fifth Five Year Plan, i.e., up to the end of financial year 1977-78, has been Rs. 364.4 million. Due to paucity of funds only 47 Reorganization schemes were taken up. Out of them 35 schemes have been completed by March 1979. There is an imbalance in the service levels, not only with regard to population served but also in the supply per capita and the availability of pressures in the mains. Forty-seven towns have a per capita supply from 25 to 47 litres per day with an average of five to 10 metres and 80 towns from 45 to 90 litres per day at an average of 19 to 15 metres. The supply is maintained for five to 10 hours a day. Increase in population in the urban areas and improvements in the standard of living of the urban dweller are mainly responsible for increased demand for water in the towns. It would be necessary to undertake reorganization schemes in 120 towns imme-

diately, and the forecast estimates, at 1978-79 prices, for reorganization schemes indicate a figure of Rs. 1,790 million. One-third of the urban population lives in five major cities whereas the remaining two-thirds lives in smaller towns. The total State population being served with piped water supply schemes rose from 68 to 78 per cent in a period of six years (1971-77). The population being served up to the year 1979 in the urban areas was 6.1 million, out of whom 61 per cent have been provided with house connections; 21 per cent of the State population draws water from the public stand posts free of charge. The remaining 18 per cent population depends on other sources of supply; for example, Army establishment and Railways have their own sources of supply at some places. Wells in domestic premises are not common as ground water is deep. People depend mostly on the available piped water supply. Although the percentage of urban population using stand post supply, free of charge, decreased from 31 to 23 during the years 1971-79, quite a sizable population continues to have no house connections. Deficiencies in distribution network, low income of the household and non-availability of loans on easy terms are responsible for the slow growth of house connections. The unaccounted water in the major towns ranges between 15 and 20 per cent of the total production. For 24 hours' supply, the percentage of unaccounted water is likely to increase. The commercial and industrial demand of water is generally 8-10 per cent of the total water demand. In smaller towns this demand is further reduced which indicates a relatively lower level of industrial development.

The maximum consumption of water is through house connections in the residential areas. On an average 9-10 persons are being served by one house connection. This shows that, generally, more than one family draws water from one house connection. Within the walled city area in Jaipur a number of families reside in one building. All the tenants of the building pay a flat rate to the owner of the house. The owner of the house serves his tenants from one house connection.

In most of the towns the source of water is deep tubewell or open well having ground water of acceptable quality. In 45 towns the supplies are from canal, rivers, impounded reservoirs or lakes. At these places water is supplied after complete treatment is given, consisting of conventional chemical pre-treatment. Although water is disinfected in all cases, the intermittent nature of the supply poses a constant risk to the bacteriological quality.

## URBAN SEWERAGE

The State has been able to pay very little attention to urban sewerage due to limited financial resources. So far a few works of laying sewer lines could be taken up in parts of Jaipur, Jodhpur, Ajmer, Bikaner, Kota, Udaipur, Vidyavihar and Mount Abu. With the exception of a complete treatment unit in Jaipur based on extended aeration system for the treatment of domestic sewage, no treatment units have so far been established. A 6 MCD treatment unit for North Zone has recently been commissioned. The main sewer lines and the out fall sewers recently laid in the cities of Jaipur, Jodhpur, Bikaner and Kota are being maintained by the Department. The maintenance of the rest of the sewerage collection system and sewerage schemes in the urban areas is being looked after by the municipalities.

As compared to the all India figure of 34 per cent of urban population served by sewerage schemes, only 8 per cent of the urban population in Rajasthan has been provided with sewerage system. About 24 per cent of the total urban population has toilet with domestic septic tanks and leeching pits, 26 per cent use bucket privies and the remaining 42 per cent have no toilet facilities. A small number of the last has access to public toilets which are either water-borne sanitary conveniences or the bucket type. The raw sewage is used for irrigation. Although existing regulations ban the use of sewage waste for raising of vegetables which are eaten raw, these have proved very difficult to enforce. The nightsoil from the bucket privies is collected from the individual houses by scavengers, engaged either privately or by the Municipal agency, who carry the excreta to different collection points in the towns. From there it is transferred in drums by the Municipal conservancy systems either in bullock carts or trucks to a dumping ground where it is thrown into trenches. Eventually it is sold as manure.

Open roadside surface drainage, with brick or concrete lining, for disposing of the waste water from the bath and kitchen exists in most towns but the percentage of the urban area covered by such drains varies widely among the towns. Open surface drains carry waste water of the sewers also since even city houses are seldom connected to dry sewerage system. Due to widespread absence of household privies, roadside drains are quite often used by the children for defecation, while the elders make use of the fields or large open drains in the outskirts of the towns. To make things worse, the

washing of the bucket privies are also sometimes discharged into the roadsides surface drains. Scavengers dump nightsoil at times surreptitiously into the large open drains under cover of darkness. The liquid wastes carried by the open drains are, therefore, often septic and foul-smelling. As a result, the environment in the congested city areas, where most of the economically weaker sections of the community live, is very insanitary. The servicing of household bucket privies is a civic problem and the local authorities find it difficult to maintain the service with necessary sanitary precaution and safeguard. As a measure of improvement of basic sanitation, massive efforts should be made for providing efficient waste water collection system in the densely populated areas of the towns where construction of pit privies is not possible. In the areas having population more than 400 persons per hectare an efficient sewer collection system should be provided. A massive effort should be made for the conversion of bucket privies into pit privies. Wherever possible the toilets should be connected to the sewer mains; otherwise leeching pits should be provided.

In the first three Plan periods no investment was made in sewerage. In the Fourth and Fifth Plans the investment made was to the tune of Rs 13.3 million. During the 6th Plan it is proposed to incur an expenditure of Rs. 37 million for sewerage schemes. The work will be carried out in the major towns only. It has been estimated that about Rs. 1350 million at 1978-79 prices would be required to provide proper sewerage schemes in all the towns of the State.

The refuse disposal in the towns is managed by the local bodies by utilizing the services of manual labour. Except for Jaipur, no mechanical plant for refuse disposal has been provided and it is being dumped in areas outside each town. A mechanical compost plant in Jaipur has recently been commissioned.

#### RURAL WATER SUPPLY AND WASTE WATER DISPOSAL

The rural water supply problem in Rajasthan is rendered complex by the different geographical, geological and hydrogeological conditions in the State. In the desert area, the water table is as low as 80 to 100 metres deep. The problem is further aggravated by the presence of excessive dissolved solids in the ground water which is extremely brackish in the desert area. Out of a total of 33,305



villages (present population 25 million), 24,037 with a population of 20 million have been classified as problem villages on the basis of criteria resting on distance accessibility, chemical quality of water sources, health and other aspects. The water sources in some of the villages carry high fluoride, chloride or nitrate content. The total dissolved solids (TDS) content is also high. Another problem faced in Rajasthan is the guineaworm-infested water source in step wells, ponds, etc. Some problem villages have no water source within a radius of 1.5 km. By the end of the Fifth Five Year Plan the total expenditure on rural sector was Rs. 569 million and the number of villages covered was 3,331, benefiting a population of 4.63 million. Thus about 18 per cent of the rural population as per 1971 census was covered up to the end of the Fifth Five Year Plan. It is estimated that about Rs. 4,750 million would be required at 1978-79 prices to provide drinking water supply to all the remaining problem villages. Up to the year 1979 the population served in the rural areas with water supply schemes was 6.25 million covering 25 per cent of the total rural population of the State.

A study of the service levels existing in 10 of the 26 districts of Rajasthan reveals that out of the population residing in villages having water supply schemes only 16 per cent is served by the house connections and the remaining 84 per cent population depends on the supply from public stand posts. It is proposed to increase the service levels by increasing the number of house connections wherever possible. But since it is proposed to cover more villages with the facility of supply of water at fixed points, the percentage of population being served by the house connections is not likely to increase. The percentage of the population served with water supply system is expected to rise by approximately 10 in the next five years.

Disposal of waste water in rural areas has not been a problem due to high soakage capacity of the sandy soil in most places of Rajasthan and also due to little rainfall. With the increased use of water the situation may not be so favourable in future. In some villages there is already evident need for better drainage facilities. This will become more pronounced as house connections are increased.

#### SERVICE LEVEL GOALS

The Government of Rajasthan has taken up a revised Minimum Needs Programme for providing drinking water facility in the problem villages. A provision of Rs. 110 crores had been made during

the Fifth Five Year Plan. Besides this programme, the Government of India has given 100 per cent subsidy to the State Government under Accelerated Programme for the problem villages in the country in general. It is expected to get from the Government of India under this Programme a grant of Rs. 15 crores during the Sixth Plan period. Besides, the State Government is now thinking of taking up a separate programme for covering non-problem villages also. The State Government intends to undertake a massive programme of 1,000 more villages being served with water supply schemes each year.

Up to the end of the Fifth Five Year Plan it was expected that some 8,000 villages would be covered with drinking water facility and in terms of coverage of the population it would be of the order of 35 per cent of the entire population of the State.

In the urban sector it is proposed to incur an outlay of Rs. 420 million during the Sixth Plan period mainly to improve the service levels of water supply in the five cities of the State and also to improve the sources of supply in smaller towns. For Bikaner, the present supply of ground water from wells being far short of the increasing demand of drinking water, it is proposed to supply filtered water from the Beechwal Lift Canal recently completed by the Irrigation Department. This will not only cater to the increasing demand but will also bring to an end the supply of well water having excessive dissolved solids, fluorides, chlorides and hardness. In Jaipur, Jodhpur and Kotah, due to rapid growth of population and urbanization, the present system of supply is not only deficient but also inadequate. It is proposed to cover the needs of drinking water up to the year 1990-91 by laying systems for new colonies and also augmenting supply to the existing colonies. It is proposed to switch over to 24 hours supply of water in these large towns on completion of IDA (World Bank) assisted projects.

On the sewerage side the laying of sewer lines in the congested areas is being given high priority and the service level in this regard is proposed to be increased from a coverage of 8 per cent of the population to 15 per cent by the end of the Sixth Five Year Plan.

#### PLANNING AND DESIGN RECOMMENDATIONS

The development plans of this sector are included in the overall development envisaged in the Five Year Plans of the State. The latter are linked with the National Five Year Plans. The Sixth Five Year

Plan commenced from 1st April, 1978. The Government of India has indicated special priority and increased allocation of funds for rural water supply programme in the Sixth Five Year Plan. The outlay finally included for the sector every year is decided on the basis of the resources generated by the State Government and the general guidelines indicated in the Five Year Plan documents. The Government of India generally provides block grants and loans to the State Government based on the total financial requirements for the overall development plans and not for individual sectors. Rural water supply being included in the Minimum Needs Programme, no diversion of funds is possible from schemes listed in the MNP to any other sector. In the case of urban water supply and sewerage there is no such Central assistance. In the year 1977-78 the Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme was initiated as a Centrally-sponsored project financed entirely by Central grant, additional to the block grants and loans for the Plan.

#### URBAN PLANNING

Planning on long-term basis is done generally for the five major towns. Specific projects are prepared based on the needs of these towns taking into account the recommendations made by the elected representatives. PHED has prepared feasibility reports for reorganization of all the smaller towns. The funds are normally provided for these every year in the annual plans of the State. Schemes undertaken under IDA-assisted projects, however, form a committed programme within the State Plan. The Government of Rajasthan has decided to take up an IDA-assisted programme for reorganizing water supply schemes in four major towns and for improving the sewerage schemes in three towns costing Rs. 843 million. Besides, institutional financing is resorted to for funds from LIC for implementation of urban water supply and sewerage schemes. In addition, there is a Central Sector programme of sewage and sullage utilization for agriculture which entitles the State to a grant of 35 per cent based on a pattern of development set forth by the Ministry of Agriculture.

The latrine conversion programme which qualifies for 100 per cent grant is restricted to towns with less than 50,000 but above 20,000 population, having no sewerage system having a water supply of at least 110 LPCD. This includes laying of sewers and providing septic tanks for disposal of waste or pumping it out by means of

mobile tankers. This scheme does not make provision for internal plumbing which has been left to the houseowner and the local authority concerned.

The State has not so far taken advantage of the sewage and sullage utilization programme for agriculture. For the latrine conversion programme the schemes are prepared by the local bodies. Some schemes were submitted to the Government of India for grant of 35 per cent subsidy wherever sullage utilization programme was taken up. The Government of India has not so far given assistance under this programme. From the planning point of view higher allocations are needed for rural schemes as well as sewage schemes. It is possible to attract institutional financing for the rural schemes. Presently an IDA-assisted programme for 10 districts estimated to cost Rs. 533 million has been taken up by the department. Besides efforts have been made to negotiate international bilateral assistance for implementation of rural schemes in other districts. One such project for Jaipur district is under negotiation with the Danish Government. For implementation of sewerage schemes it is suggested to utilize the resources of the local bodies to partly finance the scheme. The remaining amount can be drawn from financial institutions within or outside the country.

#### DESIGN ASPECTS

Generally the design criteria provided in the latest edition of the Manual of Water Supply prepared by the Government of India have been accepted by the Government of Rajasthan. The design organization in the department has, till recently, been weak. As a result, the quality of project preparation, both for urban and rural areas, needed considerable improvement. It is necessary to ensure that the choice of design parameters is oriented to project needs. There is need for greater economy and innovation in the design technique and use of material.

Although the planning and design units for preparation of the IDA-assisted schemes have been strengthened, project preparation for rest of the schemes needs considerable improvement. It is necessary that new planning and design circles should be created for project preparation and these units should be controlled directly by the Chief Engineer.

## MATERIAL PLANNING

Procurement of materials in the recent years has become problematic as essential materials like cement, diesel oil, steel, pipes, pumps, generating sets, drilling rigs etc., have been in short supply. At present there is a skeleton organization dealing with the procurement of material. It is desirable that a properly organized material procurement wing should develop in the organization. This should be entrusted with the job of the material procurement as well as supervising the work of the Divisional Stores. The tender documents need revision and updating. The specifications of various materials require standardization. Considerable advance planning and preparation of time schedules for major items has become absolutely necessary. A continuous review is required to watch full utilization of the equipment, tools and plants of the department. Procurement of the drilling rigs and its ancillaries is necessary for speedy implementation of water supply schemes in rural areas.

*Project Monitoring:* For timely completion of works and proper utilization of funds it is necessary to identify project indicators and to develop proper project reporting and reviewing systems. Before taking up a project for implementation, a master network for various activities to be carried out in each year should be drawn up. The implementation of the project should be carried out in accordance with the master network.

## OPERATIONS

Rajasthan is the only State in India where both urban and rural water supplies are planned, designed, executed, operated and maintained by one single agency which is also vested with the responsibility for levying of water rates and their collection. Generally one division takes care of construction as well as operation and maintenance of the schemes. It is generally found that by mixing up the two operations under one officer less attention is generally paid to construction, which results in increase in cost. Also, because the preparation of project and its execution are not carried out by one Executive Engineer, lots of mistakes and improper collection of data are made while sanctioning a new scheme. It is desirable to integrate the work of preparation and execution of the schemes at the field as well as at the regional level. The maintenance responsibilities should be separated from construction of projects. This particular aspect

needs detailed examination and lot of thinking has to go into it before any acceptable line of action can be adopted.

The maintenance wing of the department has already developed considerably. There are approximately 15,000 workers and 400 engineers engaged in operation, maintenance and revenue collection. There is a need to transfer this function to the local bodies. Simpler and smaller schemes need not be operated and maintained by the department. To start with, for such schemes a three-tier system can be adopted under which operation should be carried out by the local bodies and the maintenance by the Public Health Engineering Department.

#### TRAINING OF STAFF

It is necessary to upgrade, train and strengthen the operational maintenance staff. Similarly, in the PHED laboratories it is necessary to have efficient monitoring of the quality of water. The department should run training courses for new entrants. As and when the promotions are made, short-time refresher course could be given to the promotees. An efficient recruitment and promotion policy followed by a well organized training system can improve the working efficiency of the organization considerably. One of the foremost steps needed is to create a cell directly under the Chief Engineer which should make annual inspections of the operation and maintenance aspects of a scheme. This cell should review the staff situation, working of machinery and plants, spare parts, budgetary position and the monitoring of water quality. This cell would be able to suggest ways and means for reduction in the cost of operation and maintenance, particularly in the rural systems. One of the essential requirements for maintaining a public utility concern, such as water supply and sewerage undertakings, is a close rapport between authorities in charge of undertakings and the general public. Better public relationship can be established by introducing audio-visual publicity and also taking the help of the Press, radio and television.

## 12

# Rural Health Care in Rajasthan

Dr. T.P. Jain

THOUGH health is accepted as a basic human right, the majority of population of the State of Rajasthan at the time of its formation had no access to even the most rudimentary form of health care. Traditional indicators of health such as infant and maternal mortality, life expectancy, child—disease related morbidities and mortalities told a sorrowful tale. For people of Rajasthan life was a permanent struggle against an omnipresent death. This ever menacing death was experienced as an endemic famine, unemployment, a high death rate, an inferiority complex and absence of hope for the future.

To match scant resources to provide health care, to develop a self-reliant community in place of dependent and deprived community was no easy task. Beset with such innumerable challenges, policy-makers, planners and administrators addressed themselves to the task of gradually building up a firm infrastructure of health services, organize delivery of health care and fight killer diseases. Through successive Five Year Plans the State has strived hard to reach its goal and can derive a reasonable sense of satisfaction (if not of exhilaration) for the progress made so far. It will, therefore, be of interest to take an overview of evolution of health services in the State of Rajasthan since its inception in the year 1949. It will also be pertinent to remember that the State of Rajasthan for most of its "Health Programmes" followed the national pattern, yet it innovated several programmes of its own of which it can be reasonably proud.

### PROBLEMS

*The People:* Rajasthan is the second largest State in the country with more than 82 per cent of its population residing in rural areas. Rural population was unevenly and sparsely distributed in 33,305 villages. Sixty per cent of the total villages accounted for only 22 per

cent of the population. Most of these villages had less than 500 people. No roads or very poor means of communication posed another serious problem of reaching them and providing them equal opportunity for development.

### **Classification of Villages**

<i>Population Category</i>	<i>No. of Villages</i>	<i>% Villages</i>	<i>% Population</i>
Less than 200	8771	26.33	4.41
200-499	11010	33.06	17.37
500-999	7817	23.47	26.03
1000-1999	4008	12.03	25.89
2000-4999	1524	4.58	20.69
5000-9999	165	0.50	5.07
10000 and above	10	0.03	0.54
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>33305</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Majority of population was illiterate, ignorant and suffered from poverty, hunger, squalor and diseases. Besides, 30 per cent of the population belonged to Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and "denotified" tribes. These communities were treated most sub-humanly and even denied social justice, being not allowed to take water from public wells, or visit places of worship, or participate in any community functions or decision-making. Slaves of society and subdued for centuries due to deeply entrenched orthodoxy, superstition, caste and class distinction, these people had imbibed a culture of poverty which did not permit any aspiration or ambition to grow. Resigned to fate and accepting the present calmly, their attitude acted as the most important hindering factor in adopting new ways for healthful living or to introduce any new social order.

*Geographical factors:* Geographical configuration, geological formation and meteorological conditions of the State added further to the miseries of the people. Aravali ranges divide the State into West and East. West is part of the great desert and East is partially hilly with stretches of semi-desert. Most of the arid tracts have no source of even drinking water; wherever it is available, it is deep and brackish, loaded with various minerals and salts including high content of fluoride. Excess of fluorides in drinking water produces deleterious effects on health of people leading to skeletal deformity



and disability. Nearly 24,037 out of 33,305 villages have one or other kind of problems of drinking water.

### Number of Villages with Problems of Drinking Water

S. No.	Category	No. of Villages	Population in Lakhs (as per the 1971 census)
1.	Those which do not have an assured source of drinking water within a reasonable distance (say 16 km) or lift and brackishl.	10,419	88.55
2.	Those where the source of water supply is susceptible to water-borne diseases like cholera and guinea-worm.	3,888	18.68
3.	Those which suffer from excessive salinity, iron, or fluorides (including brackish).	9,730	60.38
TOTAL		24,037	167.61

*Health Problems:* Ill health, both physical and mental, coupled with malnutrition, was commonly seen. Epidemics of Malaria, Small-pox, Cholera, Typhoid, Gastroenteritis visited people regularly and took a heavy toll of life, leaving people severely depleted in health. Chronic hunger leading to malnutrition added further to the miseries.

Though correct health statistics for that period are not available, yet it could be safely assumed that conditions were far worse than reported by the Bhole Committee for British India. Life expectancy at birth was approximately 27 years, infant mortality was as high as 200/1000, crude death rate nearly 28/1000, maternal mortality was also of a very high order because of qualified assistance being not available at the time of delivery, particularly in complicated cases.

Living conditions were extremely insanitary, villages abounding with heaps of animal refuse and village people defecating in and around the village. Dwellings consisted of single-roomed *kutch* hut. These single-room tenements served as multipurpose room including cooking and at times keeping animals.

Medical and health care facilities in terms of manpower and institution were very scant. There were only 390 hospitals

and dispensaries (including major hospitals at the capitals of former princely States) with only 5,200 beds for indoor patients, thus there was one institution for 340-sq.-mile area and an average population of 42,000. There was one bed for 2,900 persons, one doctor for 22,450 persons and one nurse for 45,240 persons. Besides hospitals for general diseases, there were two Leper Asylums, three Mental Hospitals, two Isolation Hospitals, nine Tuberculosis Hospitals and Clinics.

In 1947 the erstwhile Jaipur had established a Medical College at Jaipur leading to M.B.B.S. degree. Training facilities for other types of paraprofessionals were practically non-existent.

However, it must be said that some of the States at their capitals had well-developed hospitals providing services of very high quality. These hospitals were manned by highly qualified and efficient personnel who were later to form the backbone of medical education in the State.

#### PLAN AND PROGRESS

Health is a valuable asset, a primary aim of social development and essential means to sound economic and social progress, yet achieving and maintaining health in a society is a task on a much broader scale than medical care alone. Main causes of ill health are to be found in poverty, in failure to meet basic human needs. Health services can deal directly with only a limited range of problems impinging on health. Therefore, interdependence of total development and health was not lost sight of while formulating plans and programmes.

Appreciating the above facts, a multidimensional approach was planned. The community development projects, national extension services and development through panchayat samiti/block formed an important strategy. The basic philosophy of community development blocks revolved around grass-root planning, people's participation and total development on all fronts which will ultimately improve quality of life. Agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation, education, social education, cooperatives, small-scale industries and building of roads formed important development activities. Health services through primary health centres were also developed as integral part of this scheme. Primary health centres were to be the basic unit for providing promotive, preventive and curative services through its headquarters and sub-centres.

On health front the State Government modelled the Health Programme on the national pattern of rural health services. A three-fold strategy was employed, namely:

- (a) to build up an infrastructure of institutional facilities by developing the Primary Health Centre and its sub-centres.
- (b) develop training facilities to prepare required manpower.
- (c) launching special programmes against certain major killer diseases or important health problems.

#### INSTITUTIONAL FACILITIES

The Primary Health Centre formed the basic unit of health services for rural area. With its sub-centres it aimed to provide preventive, promotive and curative services. Major functions of primary health centres were to provide:

- (a) Medical care,
- (b) Care to mother and child including family planning,
- (c) School health,
- (d) Control of communicable diseases,
- (e) Improvement of environmental sanitation,
- (f) Collection of vital statistics, and
- (g) Health education.

During last three decades the State has achieved the target of providing at least two dispensaries, one aid post in each Panchayat Samiti in addition to one Primary Health Centre with 7-10 sub-centres. Eight primary health centres have been upgraded with a bed strength of 30 each. The progress made since 1951 until 1979 is listed in Tables 12.1 and 12.2.

*Hospital on Wheels:* Rajasthan has the unique distinction of providing medical care to rural population through its mobile hospitals. Mobile hospital is one of its own kind in the country doing yeoman services. This hospital was moved to the Eastern Front in the War of 1971 and later rendered service in Bangladesh.

This hospital, in the early fifties, made a small beginning by organizing camps for surgical and eye operations and diagnostic facilities for general ailments. Community participation in the locality, where such camps were organized, was available. Gradually this organization became a full-fledged hospital on wheels with facilities to have hundred indoor patients. It is now headed by an independent Director and has its own contingent of specialists in

TABLE 12.1  
**Medical Institutions and Indoor Beds**  
**Progress from 1951 to March 31, 1980**

S. No.	Medical Institutions	Year 1951	Progress until 31.3.80					
			Urban		Rural		Total	
			No.	Indoor beds	No.	Indoor beds	No.	Indoor beds
1.	Hospital	—	143	12,726	24	558	167	13,284
2.	Dispensary	390	222	310	509	849	731	1,159
3.	Aid Post	—	13	2	242	25	255	27
4.	P.H.C.	—	—	—	232	1,869	232	1,869
5.	Subcentre	—	—	—	2,140	—	2,140	—
6.	M.C.W. Centre	—	80	482	18	76	98	558
7.	R.E.P. Centre	—	—	—	232	—	232	—
8.	U.F.P. Centre	—	138	—	—	—	138	—
9.	Mobile Hospital	—	—	—	1	500	1	500
TOTAL			390	596	3398	3877	3994	17397

TABLE 12.2  
**Progress Through Different Five Year Plans**

S. No.	Item	Five Year Plans				
		First (1951-56)	Second (1956-61)	Third (1961-66)	Fourth (1969-74)	Fifth (1974-79)
1.	Hospital	261	254	329	146	167
2.	Dispensary including aid post	210	237	211	551	986
3.	M.C.W. Centre	45	63	76	92	98
4.	P.H.C.	12	132	230	232	232
5.	Rural and Urban F.W. Centre	—	—	310	292	370
6.	Referral Hospital	—	—	—	—	18
7.	Sub-centre	—	396	690	1,624	2,120
8.	Indoor beds	6,788	9,459	12,241	15,456	17,397
9.	Population (in lacs)	163.43	183.70	206.50	278.64	315.20
10.	Doctor	830	1,300	1,737	2,022	2,840
11.	Budget (expenditure in lacs of Rs.)	112.00	167.21	393.39	1,775.68	2,940
12.	Estimated per capita expenditure on medical and health (in Rs.)	0.68	0.91	1.90	6.37	9.33
13.	Population per bed (in thousand)	2,408	1,942	1,687	1,803	1,812
14.	Population per doctor (in thousand)	19,600	14,131	11,888	13,780	11,099
15.	Population per medical institution (in thousand)	39.098	26,778	17,683	9.487	7,898

different fields and paraprofessional staff. It has its own laboratory, X-ray, generators, tents, etc. For nearly eight months in a year it is on wheels arranging 3-4 camps every month in remote rural areas. In every camp, it examines about 5,000 outdoor cases, performs about 300-400 operations for gynaecology, surgical and eye diseases. It organizes health exhibitions for education of the community. People of the locality where camps are organized actively participate by providing free food to patients, making arrangements for stay of visiting teams and providing campsite for keeping patients.

Learning a lesson from this unique programme of Rajasthan, the Government of India and the Medical Council of India provided for Chitrangan Mobile Hospitals being attached to Medical Colleges. This programme has been initiated to involve medical colleges in community services and help students develop rural bias. Two of the medical colleges of Rajasthan, namely, R.N.T. Medical College at Udaipur and J.L.N. Medical College at Ajmer, have such mobile units.

Under the scheme for prevention of blindness and extension of family welfare services, each district in Rajasthan has also been provided Mini Mobile Units. With assistance from UNFPA, it is intended to provide mobile units even at the level of upgraded primary health centres in three districts, namely, Bharatpur, Kota and Sawai Madhopur.

*Other Systems of Medicine:* Rajasthan deserves credit for development of Ayurvedic, Homoeopathy and Unani systems of medicine. Recognizing usefulness, cheapness and acceptability by people at large, the Government has encouraged establishment of more hospitals and dispensaries for these systems and provide educational facilities for training manpower in these systems. Until date there are 2,300 Ayurvedic hospitals and dispensaries, four Pharmacies, two Colleges and two Research Centres. There is one National Institute of Ayurveda for teaching and research. Likewise there are two Colleges for Homoeopathy.

#### TRAINING OF MANPOWER

Besides five medical colleges, the State can proudly boast of its two Regional Family Planning Training Centres, one Public Health Training Institute and a Nursing College. There are 29 Institutions for training of various types of paraprofessionals.

Intake in five medical colleges is about 550 students every year. These colleges, besides preparing graduates, are also providing

TABLE 12.3  
List of Educational Facilities

S. No.	Type of Institution	No.	Admission capacity	Duration of Course
1.	Training School for A.N.M.s	17	510	1 year & 6 months (pre-service)
2.	Promotional training school for L.H.V.s	2	60	6 months (in-service)
3.	General Nurses training:			
	(i) Male	5	265	3 years
	(ii) Female	4	80	3½ years
4.	Radiographer training	1	12	1 year & 6 months.
5.	Public Health Training Institute	1	40	1 year (Diploma in Pharmacy).
			25-30 per batch	1. 30 working days for M.O.s and B.E.E. under M.P.W. Scheme. 2. 8 weeks for male health supervisors and workers under M.P.W. Scheme. 3. 6 weeks for female health supervisors and workers under M.P.W. Scheme.
6.	Medical College	5	550	4½ years plus 1 year internship.
7.	Health and family welfare training centre	2	25-30 per batch	1. 30 working days for M.C.s and B.E.E.s under MPW Scheme. 2. 2 weeks for health supervisors under MPW Scheme. 3. 8 weeks for male health supervisors and workers under MPW Scheme. 4. 6 weeks for female health supervisors and workers under MPW Scheme. 5. 8 working days for persons trained in MPW Scheme (CHW Scheme). 6. 30 working days for persons untrained in MPW Scheme (CHW Scheme).
8.	Training at P.H.C. level			1. 3 months training for CHW. 2. 30 working days training for practising days. 3. 6 weeks training for female health supervisors and workers under MPW Scheme. 4. 8 weeks training for male health supervisors and workers under MPW Scheme.

educational facilities leading to postgraduation in general and super specialities.

*Auxiliary Health Workers:* Preparing a medical doctor is time-consuming and expensive and there can be no guarantee of his working in rural areas, without the support of a medical team. Therefore, during late fifties the State took another pioneering step of preparing auxiliary health workers for working at sub-centres under Primary Health Centre. Introduction of this type of worker was a very forward looking step the like of which is being now introduced after 20 years as MPW in the entire country.

Induction of AHW for rural services at the level of sub-centres was based on recognition of need of a type of person who could be (a) trained in a short period, (b) who could stay in rural area. AHW who is trained for two years in general nursing, pharmacy and public health is ideally suited for the needs of a rural community. Unfortunately, financial constraints did not allow the programme to go on and it had to be stopped during mid-sixties.

#### SPECIAL PROGRAMMES

To fight against major killer diseases, *viz.*, Malaria, Small-pox, Tuberculosis, Cholera, special programmes were launched with support from the Central Government.

National Malaria Control Programme was started in two districts of Rajasthan in 1953. Later on, it was converted into National Malaria Eradication Programme in 1959 and was extended to cover the entire State. Very impressive progress had been made by 1965 and eradication of malaria was well within sight but unfortunately, during subsequent years, progress was halted and most of the area had to face the resurgence of malaria. During seventies the strategies for fighting malaria were revised and the programme has now been labelled as National Malaria Effective Control Programme.

Programme for eradication of smallpox was launched as a pilot project around 1961 and gradually extended to the entire State. During early seventies, strategy for containing smallpox was revised by the W.H.O. Rajasthan adopted the revised strategy and was one of the first few States in the country to reach the zero target. Rajasthan was free from smallpox as early as in October 1974 whereas the entire country has been declared free of smallpox in 1978 and rest of the world in 1980.

Mass BCG vaccination and district tuberculosis control programme followed by other control programmes for Leprosy, Cholera, were also launched. These programmes have yet to make a perceptible dent against these social diseases. The problem of guinea-worm is peculiar to Rajasthan, particularly in its southern region. The Ground Water Board, a State Department, with help of the World Bank, has taken up a project to sink tubewells in affected areas, so that people may get safe water. Two districts of Rajasthan, *viz.*, Banswara and Dungarpur, have been initially included in the project and most of the rural areas in these two districts (mainly inhabited by tribal population) have been provided with hand-operated tubewells.

Extended programme for immunization against tuberculosis, diphtheria, tetanus, whooping cough has been extended to all primary health centres. Children below the age of three years are being protected against these diseases. Likewise to prevent maternal and neonatal tetanus, immunization services are being provided to pregnant mothers.

To fight malnutrition amongst children and pregnant mothers, Applied Nutrition Programme had been introduced into some selected Panchayat Samitis. Likewise, Integrated Child Development Scheme has been introduced in 10 panchayat samitis and is likely to be gradually extended.

Mid-day meal for schoolchildren, special nutrition programme, Food for Work, World Food Programme, etc., are going on in several districts. To prevent anaemia and blindness among children, iron and folic acid tablets and Vitamin 'A' solution are being distributed to all children below five years of age through respective primary health centres and their sub-centres. Likewise iron and folic acid tablets are being distributed to pregnant and lactating mothers.

Consequent to victory over several of the killing diseases and increased facilities for medical care, the crude mortality rate and infant mortality have begun to show a decline:

<i>Year</i>	<i>Crude Death Rate</i>	<i>Infant Mortality Rate</i>
1961	19.4/.000	Not available
1972	15.9/1000	123/1000 Total 160/1000 Rural



**Family Welfare Programme:** Control of communicable diseases and accessibility of medical care facilities resulted in decline of mortality and increase in longevity. Consequent to such situation there was a wide demographic gap resulting in serious population explosion. The growth rate of 2.7 per cent in the State was amongst the highest in the country. Family Planning was launched by the State during the Second Five Year Plan and gradually intensified during successive Five Year Plans. As a national health policy, scope of the family planning programme has been enlarged to provide protective nutritive education and preventive services to mothers and children. About 14 per cent of eligible couples in reproductive age group have been protected by some method or the other.

TABLE 12.4

**Position of Performance During Past Five Years**

<i>Scheme</i>	<i>1974-75</i>	<i>1975-76</i>	<i>1976-77</i>	<i>1977-78</i>
1. Sterilization	38,071	86,257	364,760	12,636
2. Vasectomy	20,676	53,285	323,484	1,948
3. Tubectomy	17,395	32,972	41,276	10,688
4. I.U.D.	16,705	22,764	11,812	8,951
5. C.C. Users	45,795	70,634	67,741	69,343
6. M.T.P.	2,517	5,748	7,806	6,660

Level of acceptance of one or other kind of F.P. method since inception until March, 1979 is as follows:

<i>Method</i>	<i>Per thousand population</i>
Sterilization	26.91
I.U.D.	7.35
C.C. Users	2.90

**Laprosopic Camps:** Tubectomy operations with use of Laproscope is simple, quick and requires very little stay of patient. This

new technique is gaining popularity and is widely accepted by rural women-folk. Making use of above facts, the State Government since the middle of January, 1980, has introduced Laproscopic mobile camps in rural areas. Since mid-January 1980, until the end of September 1980, nearly forty thousand operations have been performed. Appreciating its popularity nine teams in the State have now been trained. To make this facility available at every district and sub-district level, it is intended to set up a Laproscopic Training Centre.

### THE GAP

In spite of an impressive progress made during the past three decades the ground level view of majority of population in rural areas remains gloomy. It is not uncommon to see malnourished, potbellied children playing in dust, women trudging long distances to fetch drinking water, open air defecation practised in and around the villages. No he in emergency maternal deaths associated with pregnancy and child bearing still takes a heavy toll of life. The distant drums, silent cries of rural poor still remain largely unheard.

The perceptible gap in development between urban and rural is well brought out by following mortality indicators:

	<i>Crude death rate per 1000</i>	<i>Infant mortality rate per 1000</i>
Urban	9.3	104.5
Rural	17.4	148.5

*Steps to Bridge the Gap:* It was realized that:

(1) There should be greater emphasis on coverage of population instead of wide range of services to a small community.

(2) Poor health of people is both a cause and effect of poverty. Therefore, besides providing health inputs, emphasis should be on improvement of overall quality of life.

(3) Utilization of services depends upon people's active participation which in turn depends upon awareness and accessibility.

To correct the imbalance and extend the health services to backward, tribal and rural areas on one hand and underprivileged

sections on the other, two new concepts were introduced: Three-tier rural care programme and minimum needs programme.

*Three-Tier Rural Care Programme:* The revised strategy is to make rural health services available in a three-tier system which is as follows:

(a) Primary care at the village level to be provided by the community health worker, selected from the village.

(b) At intermediate level care by male and female multi-purpose workers.

(c) Basic health services through PHC and a well developed referral system.

*Primary Health Care Through Community Health Worker:* Concept of primary health care has assumed new priority for two important reasons:

(1) Majority of health problems and wide range of illness can be treated or prevented at grass-root level with simple technology.

(2) Acceptance and utilization of services depends upon people's active participation.

Such a situation could only be met by preparing a cadre of grass-root workers, who could provide immediate care and work as change-agents. Such a grass-root worker has been labelled as Community Health Worker. This scheme was accepted by the Government of Rajasthan and it was decided to prepare such workers at the rate of 1 per thousand population.

Besides preparing such Community Health Workers, it was also decided to provide suitable training to and utilize the services of 'traditional birth attendants' to provide satisfactory care to women during pregnancy and at the time of delivery.

The programme was launched in October 1977. Until July 1979, 5,462 workers had been trained and the programme is running at 78 primary health centres spread in all districts. With this revised strategy, the State Government will have to reinforce its training programme to fill in the gap as given in the table 12.5.

#### MINIMUM NEEDS PROGRAMME

Though development policies were devised for socio-economic growth, yet the benefits did not reach all sectors of rural population. Consequently a new thrust in planning has been introduced aiming to meet certain minimum basic needs. These include minimum requirement for food, shelter, clothing, essential services such as safe

TABLE 12.5

**MNP Targets as Suggested by the Planning Commission  
and as Adopted by State Government**

	<i>Desired norm</i>	<i>Prevalent situation</i>
1. Trained Dai	1 : 1000 population	Recently introduced
2. C.H.W.	1 : 1000     "	
3. A.N.M./Sub-centres	1 : 5000     "	1 : 10,000 Population
4. Health Workers (M)	1 : 5000     "	1 : 15,000     "
5. Health Supervisors (M)	1 : 20,000   "	1 : 15,000     "
6. Health Visitor	1 : 20,000   "	1 : 100,000   "
7. MP at PHC	3 per PHC or 1 : 33,000	2 per PHC in some PHCs and in some M.Os.
8. Specialists at Upgraded PHC		
(a) Gynaecologist	1 : 40 lac	—
(b) Pediatrician	1 : 40 lac	—

water, sanitation, transport, health and education. Such a concept found its place for the first time in the Fifth Five Year Plan under the Minimum Needs Programme.

It was envisaged that measures for providing larger employment and incomes to the poorer sections would have to be supplemented up to at least certain minimum standard by social investment in the form of education, health, nutrition, drinking water, housing, communication and electricity. The objectives of the minimum needs programme as originally laid down by the Planning Commission could not be attained primarily because of financial constraints faced by the State.

The norms for items of minimum needs programme determined for the Fifth Plan have been redefined for the 1978-83 Plan period. The programme based on upgraded norms is designated as the Revised Minimum Needs Programme intended to fulfil the promise of providing essential infrastructure and social services to the weaker section of the population, particularly in the rural areas.

The targets under revised norms as specified by the Planning Commission and the likely levels to be attained in Rajasthan by 1982-83 are given below in respect of health and nutrition.

TABLE 12.6

<i>Item</i>	<i>Target 1978-83 as prescribed by the Planning Commission</i>	<i>Target level for Rajasthan at the end of 1982-83</i>
1. Rural Health	(i) Upgradation of PHC into 30-bed hospitals (25%)	25%
	(ii) One sub-centre for every 5000 population (71%)	100%
	(iii) Coverage of villages by community health worker (46%)	To be covered under Centrally-sponsored scheme.
2. Rural Water Supply	Coverage of all problem villages	100%
3. Environmental improvement of urban slums	Slum dwellers in large cities to benefit	2.5 lac slum dwellers in six cities
4. Nutrition	(i) Mid-day meals for children in age group 6-11 years	5 lac additional children
	(ii) Supplementary feeding programme for under-nourished children in age group 0-6. Pregnant and nursing mothers in blocks with high concentration of SC/ST	(i) 2.92 lac additional beneficiaries under S.N.P. (ii) 0.30 lac additional beneficiaries under W.E.P. (iii) 0.70 lac additional beneficiaries under I.C.D.S.

*Rural Health Programme:* Under the Revised Minimum Needs Programme, it has been aimed to augment health services, correct regional imbalances, by filling in the gaps and strengthening the infrastructure. To achieve the above objective, it has been planned to open 3,526 additional sub-centres, so that the coverage reached would be 5,000 population. Subsidiary health centres numbering 425 will be established which will form a link between PHC and the sub-centres. Bed strength of PHC is proposed to be raised as follows:

<i>P.H.C.</i>	<i>Bed strength</i>
159	From 6 to 10
15	From 10 to 20
50	To be upgraded and raised to 30.

Upgraded primary health centres will have additional facilities for laboratory, x-ray, operation theatre, etc., and will function as referral hospitals. Targets for the Sixth Five Year Plan (80-85) are tabulated below:

TABLE 12.7  
**Target for Sixth Plan (1980-85)**

S. No.	Item	Achievement at the end of 1979	Target for 1980-85	Expected achievement at the end of Sixth Plan
1.	Hospital	167	2	169
2.	Dispensary including first aid post	986	122	1108
3.	M.C.W. Centres	98	10	108
4.	P.H.C.	232	4	236
5.	Rural and Urban F.W. Centres	370	24	394
6.	Referral Hospital	18	41	59
7.	Sub-centre	2120	2352	4472
8.	Indoor beds	17397	2512	19911
9.	Population (in lacs)	31520	35739	—
10.	Doctor	2840	972	3632
11.	Budget (expenditure in lacs)	2940	5156.92	—
12.	Estimated per capita expenditure on medical and health (in Rs.)	9.33	14.43	—
13.	Population per bed (in thousand)	1812	1795	—
14.	Population per doctor (in thousand)	11099	9840	—
15.	Population per medical institution (in thousand)	7893	5460	—

#### UNITED NATIONS FUND FOR POPULATION ACTIVITIES PROJECT

To strengthen and improve infrastructure of health service integrated with family welfare, the State Government has started a population project with assistance of the UNFPA. The project has become operative since April 1980 in three districts, *viz.*, Bharatpur, Kota and Sawai Madhopur.

*Aims of the Project:* The project aims at improvement of health services integrated with family welfare as well as mother and child care services. The development project will help to promote the national population policy objectives of reducing the birth rate to 30 per thousand population by 1983, and achieve a net reproductive rate (NRR) of unity by 2000 A.D.

*Project Strategy:* With this framework of the national policy the strength of service personnel at the base level has been revised suitably. For example more facilities are provided to improve their skills and to intensify domiciliary visits. Besides appointment of additional staff like health workers (male and female), provision for better training and residential accommodation as well as facilities for mobility have been made. It is hoped that all these facilities taken together will help in increasing the out reach of the services and in creating the necessary climate for community participation and involvement. It is, however, recognized that there are several ways in which the project work could be improved. Keeping this in view, the project would attempt a few schemes on experimental basis aimed at finding out ways and means to improve rural health services. These schemes may extend from management and record keeping to broader aspects of rural development.

A few innovative approaches to promote efficient and effective delivery of services as well as action-oriented experiments on community involvement will also be tried for possible replication. Some of the special projects and innovatory schemes proposed to be taken up are:

- (1) Honorarium for promotion work at panchayat level.
- (2) Additional incentives to acceptors and motivators.
- (3) Incentives to trade unions, mahila mandals, yuva mandals, voluntary organizations.
- (4) Additional incentives to private practitioners for performing sterilization operations.
- (5) State awards to panchayats and municipalities.
- (6) Introducing training in family welfare in courses for farmers, gram-sewaks.
- (7) Extra incentives to those lady workers who will be involved in training of mahila mandals. In each district 20 lady workers will be prepared for the work and paid Rs. 100 p.m.
- (8) Involvement of "traditional birth attendants" to work in

coordination with A.N.M.s on annual contract basis. Such attendants will be paid Rs. 50 p.m. during the period of contract.

(9) New management information system.

(10) Use of diagnostic flow charts.

Towards the end of the project period, around the third year, some inputs will be extended to the remaining districts. Even though limited, this extension will minimize the disparity between the projects and non-project areas and would be an exercise in replication.

*Rural Water Supply:* Until March 1978, only 4,005 villages could be provided with safe drinking water. Appreciating the urgency of supplying water to 20,847 villages an outlay of Rs. 436.95 crores has been made under the State Plan for rural water supply programme during the 1977-83 Plan period. Assistance from the World Bank is forthcoming to meet the financial constraints.

### CONCLUSION

During the past three decades a steady and significant progress has been made. Number of institutions, training facilities and trained manpower have increased manifold. There is a constant decline in mortality indicators and gradual increase in life expectancy.

Rajasthan tops the list of States in incurring health expenditure. It is spending Rs. 11.06 per year per capita. With about 50 per cent of its health institutions located in rural areas, Rajasthan is the fourth State in this respect; Tamil Nadu, Kerala and Orissa are only other three States which have a higher percentage of rural institutions.

Yet it is in many ways behind States like Kerala. There is also a wide gap between rural and urban situation. Tables below vividly bring out the gaps.

TABLE 12.8

### Measures of Medical Facilities

<i>State</i>	<i>Per capita State domestic product (Rs.)</i>	<i>Per capita expenditure on health (Rs.)</i>	<i>Population served by one doctor</i>	<i>Per cent hospitals in rural areas</i>
Kerala	573	6.93	4,742	57
Rajasthan	544	11.06	12,662	50



TABLE 12.9  
**Indicators of Health**  
 (all rates are per thousand)

State	Crude Death Rate			Infant mortality rate	Under Five mortality	Per cent of total
	Rural	Urban	Total			
Kerala	8.6	7.4	8.5	61.4	24.0	39.0
Rajasthan	17.3	9.1	15.8	148.6	77.5	30.4
All India	17.3	9.8	15.7	138.3	61.7	58.2

It is therefore necessary to consolidate and maximize the utilization of the resources already put in rather than expanding activities. It will be useful to redefine priorities and modify strategy accordingly.

Synergistic effect on health of economic development, better education, good physical environment should not be lost sight of.

Intensive efforts should go into achieving the goals set in the Revised Minimum Needs Programme for basic human needs, which in turn will help in achievement of many of the health goals.

## 13

# Mobile Surgical Unit

V.D. Garg

THE necessity of providing modern medical aid to the people who have been in the clutches of witchcraft and quacks for centuries was severely felt by all concerned in public administration after independence. But no way out seemed possible because of many adverse factors, *viz.*

(1) Rajasthan being not very thickly populated, the villagers are scattered; hence it was not possible to establish many modern hospitals especially when the financial resources were limited.

(2) Means of communication were poor and distances great, with the result that patients could not reach hospitals at district headquarters or at the few large towns.

(3) The majority of village people were poor and economically backward; hence they could not avail of the benefits of modern medicine at bigger hospitals.

(4) Even if the poor village folk could reach such hospitals, the procedural routine and the nursing care, which are largely designed on the Western pattern, were felt by them as cumbersome and contrary to their culture; so they rather avoided availing of these opportunities.

### IDEA OF A MOBILE HOSPITAL

As far back as 1956, Dr. B.N. Sharma, the then Director of Medical and Health Services, conceived of the idea to provide medical aid to the villages, on wheels, by organizing a mobile hospital and serve the people at their very doors.

With this object in view a small unit was organized and established by the name of Mobile Surgical Unit (it was doing only surgical work in the beginning) with limited number of beds and staff. In the camps organized by this unit in villages the response was tremendous. The unit proved its utility beyond doubt and people who initially opposed the idea are now very much for it.

With the passage of time the unit was expanded and improved in quality because of the interest taken by the Rajasthan Govern-

ment. Dr. S.C. Mehta showed much enthusiasm about the unit and got the unit equipped with modern equipment and added other specialities. He also improved the quality of working. Slowly the unit has now become equivalent in size to a 500-bed modern hospital with 10 specialists and latest type of equipment as is available in an 'A' Class Hospital.

### STRUCTURE OF THE UNIT

This 500-bed unit is manned by 202 persons on its staff, consisting of doctors, para-medical staff, drivers, mechanics, electricians and others.

(1) *Doctors and Para-Medical Staff:*

Specialists:

- |                           |      |  |
|---------------------------|------|--|
| (a) Senior Specialists    | 4 :  | Surgery<br>Medicine<br>Gynaecology<br>Anaesthesia  |
| (b) Junior Specialists    | 8 :  | Ophthalmology<br>Orthopaedic Surgery<br>E.N.T. Surgery<br>General Surgery<br>Gynaec Surgery<br>Radiology<br>Pathology<br>Paediatric medicine |
| (c) Civil Asstt. Surgeons | 16 : | (Inclusive of one dental surgeon)  |
| (d) Para-Medical Staff    | :    |  |

(2) *Publicity Section:* There is a publicity section with a Publicity Officer and other staff, projectors, mikes, etc.

(3) *Tent Section:* The unit has its own huge big tents, each of which can accommodate 90 hospital beds, shamianas, smaller tents of swiss cottage type etc., for conducting outdoors and boarding-lodging purposes.

(4) *Mechanical/Transport Section:* The unit has 19 vehicles of different types with a well-equipped mechanical department to look after them:

- 5 Trucks for transporting heavy luggage;
- 3 Minibuses for Staff;
- 2 Station Wagons for inspection and survey of areas;

- 1 Publicity Vehicle;
- 1 Ambulance;
- 1 Vehicle fitted with electric generator;
- 1 Vehicle fitted with dental unit permanently; and
- 1 Vehicle fitted with X-ray Unit.

(5) *Electricity Department*: The unit has its own electric generators of different capacities, viz., 20 KW, 40 KW, 60 KW and smaller ones as well. With this, we manage electricity supply where there is no electricity and can supplement where the supply is not constant.

(6) *Pathology Department*: Under care of a specialist and having blood transfusion facilities also.

(7) *Operation Theatres*: With modern autoclaves, sterilizers, operation tables and movable type of field lamps, Boyle's apparatuses, etc.

(8) *E.C.G. Machines* of latest type in the Medical Department.

(9) *Mobile Stores* for drugs and other equipment to feed the needs of the camp locally.

(10) *Camp Office* in the charge of a Medical Officer and manned by clerks, accountant, etc., to coordinate the working and to look after the accounts side.

(11) Public sanitation and health. } We have just minimal staff for these and call the concerned

(12) Tuberculosis control } district authorities to the camp

(13) Control of Malaria } for this purpose. This is purposely  
and other communicable diseases. } done as it is the responsibility of  
of the district authorities to take  
short-term and long-term mea-  
sures and keep records of these  
activities. We provide them work-  
ing space in the tents and other  
facilities in the camp.

#### ORGANIZATION OF A PARTICULAR CAMP

We invite requisitions from local administrative agencies like District Collectors, Block Development Officers, Philanthropic organizations etc. After scrutiny of requisitions, we mark out the places where the camps will be most useful. Then it is assessed as to what amount of participation by local administration, other local agencies, and general public, will be there. The whole success of a Camp depends

on the participation of local agencies; otherwise for establishing a camp at a small village it is very difficult to make arrangements for more than 1000 people (patients, their relatives, staff, etc.). These tentative places are marked on a working calendar of the year so that transport from one place to another may be most economical. We cover a particular area, then move to next adjoining area and so on.

After this, by prior fixation of programme a survey and site inspection party with Superintendent and Camps Incharge and other members move for site inspection.

This party meets the committee of local agencies, selects the site after looking to all facilities available, makes a scrutiny of arrangements, gives direction for works to be got done by local people before the camp starts and takes note of any foreseen difficulties which may arise and finds remedies for them. Even if they have to be sorted out at State level like temporary acquisition of school building, arrangements in Dak Bungalows and Circuit Houses, etc.

Then the publicity department moves in the area 10-12 days ahead of the camp, with its own projectors, films, etc., and with guidance of district authorities it moves from village to village covering about 125 villages informing people of the camp.

Third to move is our advance team which will reach 4-7 days earlier and arrange for pitching of tents, arrange for board and lodging of staff, also for operation theatres etc., so that these are all ready one day before the camp.

Then our staff consisting of doctors, nursing and para-medical staff moves and starts working as follows:

First three days we run the outdoor departments of various specialities in which about four to five thousand patients are examined. 500 to 700 patients requiring admission for operation or for investigations are admitted.

After doing all investigations, on the 4th day the operation work starts. Separate operation theatres for surgery and eye operations are put to function which run on an average 12 hours a day. As the work of eye operations is more, 4-5 surgeons work simultaneously and about 100 to 150 cataract operations are done per day. When all the operation work is complete, the post-operative care starts lasting for a week or so.

After leaving the post-operative team of the doctors and staff the rest move to the next place.

On an average, about three to five thousand persons are benefited as indoor patients. Out work of one camp can be compared with the work of a district hospital done in one full year (leaving aside one or two districts) in Rajasthan. The following table shows the work done and patients attended during 1977-78 by this Unit:

Year : 1977-78. Total Number of Camps : 19

<i>Patients Treated in Outdoors</i>		<i>Operations Performed</i>	<i>Other Services</i>	
(a) Surgery	3,840	991	Blood transfusions	12
(b) Medicine	18,048	—	X-ray & Screening	963
(c) Gynaecology	3,137	199	E.C.G.	16
(d) Eye	19,638	2,480	Cases examined:	
(e) Dental	3,668	3,062	(i) T.B.	1,580
			(ii) Malaria	1,603
				3,183

Total Number of Persons Benefited=59,287.

#### OTHER BENEFITS OF THE CAMPS

Apart from providing medical care, the unit renders other benefits to the poor ignorant population of villages.

It has a great educative role for these people about the importance of modern scientific advances in medicine. Most of our poor villagers had probably never known what are ECGs and their utility, they also did not know what diseases can be cured by surgery, what diseases can be managed by medicines to make life easier.

In fact in areas where camps have been held, people talk of coming to the next camp to get their diseases cured and incapacities corrected. Thus, they loosen the grip of witchcraft and quackery.

Also people are taught certain health measures and how to live a healthy life.

Most of communicable diseases are isolated and precautionary measures taught, for example, T.B., Malaria, worm infestations, etc.

Also certain diseases most prevalent in a particular area, *e.g.*, deficiency diseases etc., come to light and the Government can plan remedial measures for them.

It is also an educative field to the local younger-folk who learn ABC of nursing (apart from technical part, we organize nursing by recruiting local volunteer force).

It also gives incentive to philanthropic organizations and persons to invest their money and might for the noble cause of the poor and down trodden and satisfy their internal urge to serve the humanity.

Last but not the least I shall bring it to light that this unit has served the country in times of need and calamities. Like at the time of the Bangladesh crisis, the unit was moved there and did commendable work. Also at the time of natural calamities like floods and famines the unit has done good work.

This unit is also a good training ground for learning for our doctors and other technical staff about the conditions, diseases which our large number of population mostly inhabited in villages suffer. These things cannot be taught by books and lectures but can be acquired by field work.

#### CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE UNIT

Although all Governments have been supporting the unit since its inception without which it would not have grown to its present size, the contribution of the Janata Government in the development of the unit has been very significant.

At the instance of former Chief Minister Bhairon Singh Shekhawat, we have started organizing camps in tribal areas which were formerly being neglected for want of monetary local contributions for diet of patients and other petty arrangements. Now this is borne by our State Government and from the Chief Minister's Fund. The unit has also realized that tribal areas were being neglected so far. Keen interest shown by persons who matter in the State or Centre has gone a long way to raise the morale of the unit workers in their work. Our Medical Colleges provide their expertise and assistance whenever called for. Professors of various departments spare time from their busy schedule to spend in the camps to give their helping hand and boost the morale of juniors working on the job. Many foreign dignitaries have visited the camps

and simply wondered that it was possible in reality to have a hospital of such magnitude moving from place to place.

I shall conclude by saying that this is the only unit in India of its kind, perhaps the only in Asia or the world, thus giving a distinction to our State which could be backward in other spheres but is far ahead of anyone in this respect. It has made possible to take hospitals to patients rather than patients going to hospitals.



## 14

# Role of the State Government in the Development of Higher Education

N.M. Kothari

BEFORE attempting to discuss a State Government's role in the development of higher education, it is necessary to state briefly the importance of education in general and of higher education in particular for a developing country like ours which has, on the one hand, a very glorious cultural heritage to fall back upon but which has, on the other hand, because of subjugation during several centuries, remained backward in the field of education. If education, in general, has rightly been looked upon as an instrument of change, as an investment, a master key to everything one considers worthy of pursuit in life, higher education is of supreme importance because it is directly linked with national development, cultural refinement and over-all prosperity of the country. Socio-economic and cultural revolution is possible through higher education. Competent professional manpower which is of great assistance in increasing productivity and in promoting economic growth is possible only through qualitative higher education. Higher education can play significant roles in some more ways : it can assist in the creation of new values and attitudes in place of the old and thereby lead the country to the path of modernization; it can promote the nation's interests and national goals of democracy, socialism and secularism over local, regional, linguistic and State loyalties. If we really as a nation want to cope with the technologically, scientifically and economically advanced nations of the world, we can do so only on the basis of the superior quality of our higher education. In a word, the role and significance of higher education is so obvious enough that it hardly needs further elaboration.

## DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(a) *Pre-Independence Phase:* Though ancient India had her own unique system of higher education, yet unfortunately the unique traditions of our system did not survive and with the arrival and ascendancy of the British in our country, modern universities were established by the then Government of India on the model of the London University: the earliest of these were the Universities of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras—which all were founded in 1857 and a few colleges were also started; a little later two more Universities—Punjab and Allahabad—were established in 1882 and 1887 respectively. They all began as purely examining Universities and continued to be so till 1904 when the Universities Act was passed; these universities became teaching-cum-affiliating Universities. Since then more universities and colleges/institutes for promoting higher education were founded and by 1947 there were 20 universities and over 650 colleges for promoting higher education.

(b) *Post-Independence Era:* In the post-Independence era, there has been a tremendous expansion in the field of higher education also and the number of universities has now increased to 115 (105 Universities and 10 Institutes of Higher Learning deemed as Universities) and the number of colleges to about 4,800.

This prolific expansion of higher education throws sidelights on the relationship between the universities/colleges/centres of higher learning and the State Government and on the policies of the State Government towards higher education.

A broad survey of the growth and development of higher education in our country reveals that when the Constitution of Indian Republic was framed, education became, primarily, a State subject but in the Union List given in the VIIth Schedule, provision was also made according to which it was enjoined that coordination and determination of standards in institutions of higher education or research and scientific and technological institutions would remain the responsibility of the Union Government. Thus, though higher education in the country, for all practical purposes, is the responsibility of the States, yet the Union Government reserves the right of looking after and guiding and controlling higher education through the University Grants Commission which finances aspects of higher education and also attempts to provide coordination to the system and determines the standards.

## GROWTH OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN RAJASTHAN

The growth and development of higher education in Rajasthan, by and large, shares several characteristics with other States of the Indian Union. It has, however, certain peculiar features of its own which make its educational system of higher education slightly different from that of other States of the country.

At the time of the formation of Rajasthan, in March 1949, there were only one University of Rajasthan with headquarters at Jaipur and 24 Post-graduate, Degree and Intermediate colleges. In 1950-51, at the beginning of the First Five Year Plan, there were 17 Degree and Post-graduate Colleges (12 for boys and five for girls) and 10 Intermediate Colleges (nine for boys and one for girls) with total enrolment of 14,846 boys and 1,575 girls. Besides, there were six Professional Colleges. Leaving about half a dozen colleges which were started by public philanthropists, rest of the colleges were opened by the enlightened rulers of the States for their subjects. During the course of the last three decades, the State Government did, keeping in view the educational needs of the State, pioneering work for the propagation and promotion of higher education.

In the first instance, during the Third Plan period the Government set up in 1962 two new Universities, one at Jodhpur for the advancement of general and technical education and the other at Udaipur for the promotion of agriculture and veterinary sciences. It simultaneously handed over Government Colleges located at Jaipur (Maharaja, Maharani, Commerce and Rajasthan Colleges) to the University of Rajasthan and Government Colleges located at Jodhpur (Jaswant, S.M.K. and Kamla Nehru Girls Colleges) to the newly-founded University of Jodhpur. It also handed over the control of Government Agriculture Colleges located at Udaipur and Jobner and Veterinary College at Bikaner to the University of Udaipur. The jurisdiction of the University of Jodhpur was restricted to the municipal limits of Jodhpur. In 1964, the University of Udaipur was converted into multi-faculty centre of learning and the Government handed over Maharana Bhopal Government College to the University. Its jurisdiction was restricted to the municipal limits of Udaipur. Consequent to this other colleges which were located in Udaipur city were dis-affiliated from the University of Rajasthan and got affiliated with the University of Udaipur.

The jurisdiction of Jodhpur University being restricted to the Engineering College and Colleges for Arts, Science, Commerce, etc. within Jodhpur city, and similarly the jurisdiction of Udaipur being limited to Agriculture and Veterinary institutions of the State and Colleges for Arts, Science etc. within Udaipur city, all other general and professional colleges, including medical colleges situated in Jodhpur and Udaipur, continued to be constituent or affiliated colleges of the University of Rajasthan based in Jaipur.

The only exception and a landmark in the field of higher education was that in the same year (1964) the Birla Institute of Technology & Science was established at Pilani by merging different colleges located there and it was given the status of a "deemed University". In view of growing demand for opening of colleges particularly from far off places the Government opened as many as 42 new Government Colleges during this period. As a result of this, there is at least one college in each of the 26 districts to provide opportunities to the wards of people who cannot afford to send them to study in bigger cities. Not only this, it also upgraded 21 Degree Colleges to Post-graduate level to meet local demand of people. The location of these Post-graduate Colleges has been planned in such a way that there is at least one Post-graduate College in 24 out of 26 districts. Colleges in the districts of Jalore and Jaisalmer have not been raised to Post-graduate level as the student population at Under-graduate level in these two districts is insufficient. Now besides constituent colleges and teaching departments of the three Universities, there are 112 other colleges for general education, of which 42 provide Post-graduate education.

It may be stated here that while in other States the affiliated colleges have been distributed on the basis of regional proximity to almost all the universities existing in the State, Rajasthan has shown tremendous restraint by keeping most of the colleges affiliated to one university only. Its obvious advantage has been three fold:

- (1) There has been uniformity of standards throughout the State;
- (2) There has been no problem for students migrating from one college to another; and
- (3) It has kept under control the unhealthy regional spirit.

Just as in the field of General Education, so also in the area of Professional Education, the State made rapid progress. There are now 70 Professional Colleges (five Medical Colleges, 25 Teachers

Training Colleges, 31 Sanskrit Colleges, three Ayurvedic Colleges, two Engineering Colleges, one College for Nursing, two Schools of Social Work and one Shiksha Shastri College) besides the components of the Birla Institute of Technology and Science at Pilani. The over-all picture of the institutions of higher learning as it emerges out of the growth of the past three decades of planned development is given below:

1. Number of Universities 3
2. Number of Institutions Deemed to be University 1
3. Number and nature of Colleges attached to the three Universities:

*Rajasthan Udaipur Jodhpur*

1. Constituent Colleges of University	4	5	3+1 (Engg.)
2. Affiliated Colleges:			
(A) General	107	3	2
(B) Professional:			
(i) Engineering	1	—	—
(ii) T.T. Colleges	21	3	1
(iii) Medical Colleges	5	—	—
(iv) Nursing	1	—	—
(v) Ayurvedic	3	—	—
(vi) Sanskrit	31	—	—
(vii) Shiksha Shastri	1	—	—
(viii) School of Social Work	—	1	1
	<hr/> 174	<hr/> 12	<hr/> 8

With the sharp increase in the number of colleges, there has been phenomenal expansion in student population. As against student enrolment of about 18,000 in all types of colleges in 1950-51, there are now over 1.50 lakh students studying in general and professional colleges in the State.

*Status of Teachers:* The Government has not only established three universities and opened colleges in large numbers to provide facilities for such students as cannot go to bigger cities to study, but also took adequate steps to recruit able and competent persons to the teaching profession with a view to maintaining high standard of

higher education. At first, the Government raised the pay scales of college teachers from Rs. 200-400 to Rs. 250-600 in 1956. These scales, however, were lower than the pay scales prescribed for State Administrative, Police, Judicial, Accounts, Engineering and similar services. Realizing the importance of the profession of teaching and with a view to attracting best talent to the profession and to raising the status of college teachers, the Government, in 1960, took a very significant step whereby the grades of Government College lecturers were brought at par with the pay scales of the officers of the Rajasthan Administrative Service raising the pay scale from Rs. 250-600 to 250-750 (pay scale prescribed for R.A.S.). Simultaneously Rajasthan Education Service (Collegiate Branch) was created on the pattern of the R.A.S. The same pay scales were prescribed for the lecturers working in Aided Colleges. Consequently, about 1,200 Government College lecturers and about 400 lecturers working in Aided Colleges were immediately benefited. By this step, Rajasthan became the first State in the country to prescribe the same pay scale for State Administrative Service Officers and college lecturers. In view of the large number of college teachers, this decision was really a bold step on the part of the State Government. Resultingly, teachers of good quality were recruited in subsequent years. The University of Rajasthan enjoyed in the academic circles high reputation and was rated among the first ten universities in the country.

*Facilities for Students:* For propagating higher education especially among the low-income groups and also among the weaker sections of the community, the Government prescribed low rates of tuition fee. Students belonging to non-income tax payer group pay a nominal fee of Rs. 3.50 to 4.50 per month in under-graduate classes and Rs. 8.00 per month in Post-graduate classes. And the students belonging to weaker sections of society (*i.e.* Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribe) are granted total exemption from tuition and admission fees. Similarly, all girl students in the initial phase were not required to pay tuition fee at all. But later on this concession was restricted to such girl students whose parents' annual income was below Rs. 10,000. Another special feature with regard to the facilities given to students in the State is that a provision has been made for 400 need-cum-merit scholarships which are awarded to students who belong to Rajasthan and who secure I Division in Higher Secondary Examination or in Degree Examination. This is in addition to national scholarships awarded by the Central Govern-

ment. Besides, students belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are provided with scholarships, text-books, financial assistance and hospital facilities.

*Grant-in-aid:* When Rajasthan was formed the number of private educational institutions was small. There was inadequate response from the philanthropists. The financial resources of these institutions were not satisfactory: Existing grant-in-aid rules did not give sufficient encouragement to lovers of education to start institutions of higher education. To mitigate the hardships of non-government educational institutions and to encourage private enterprise for starting new institutions, the Government framed new grant-in-aid rules for private schools and colleges in January 1963. In accordance with the new rules institutions are grouped into four categories: A, B, C and D under the advice of Grant-in-Aid Committee and receive grant at the rate of 80 per cent, 70 per cent, 60 per cent and 50 per cent respectively of the approved recurring expenditure of the previous year after making allowance for the periodical increments of the staff. Institutions which do pioneering work are put in a special category and they become eligible to receive grant-in-aid equal to 90 per cent of the approved gross expenditure but it should in no case exceed the difference between the approved expenditure and income from fees and other recurring sources. The case for any increase in grant-in-aid as a rule is reviewed by the Grant-in-Aid Committee ordinarily after three years on the basis of inspection report of special committees appointed for this purpose.

*Relationship between Government Colleges and the Universities:* Relationship between the affiliated colleges and the universities in general and between Government Colleges which form the biggest element of affiliated institutions and universities in particular have different shades and meaning. Barring one Government College at Udaipur, all Government Colleges are affiliated to the University of Rajasthan. When the University of Rajasthan was reorganized in 1962 and other universities were started, people had high hopes from the universities that they will provide leadership and academic standards will touch new and high-water marks.

To some extent the University of Rajasthan in the 60's rose to the expectation as it provided leadership to its affiliated colleges. But later on due to unwieldy growth of its external wing and growing student problems it has been finding it difficult to maintain its academic standard. The University of Rajasthan which has about

170 affiliated colleges has not been in a position to hold examinations in time due to agitations organized by a few student leaders. There is great resentment among students of affiliated colleges and their guardian parents for not holding the examinations in time. Moreover, the transfer of four former Government Colleges located at Jaipur to the University of Rajasthan has further aggravated its problems as their integration into the university set-up is still not complete, *i.e.*, under-graduate classes are still run in colleges and Post-graduate classes in the main campus. Teachers have been agitating from the very beginning for integrated faculty-wise teaching. It has resulted in tension between the junior and senior faculty members. This has created several problems such as those of administrative control over teachers, relationship between the collegiate and departmental wings, and the neglect of under-graduate teaching and so on. No wonder, the people of old generation not only fondly recall the old standards of these former Government Colleges but also, in retrospect, ponder over the 'mistake' committed in their transfer to the University and wishfully think of rectifying it.

In Jodhpur though the faculty-wise teaching has been introduced from the very beginning, yet due to the sociological problems, especially those relating to caste, the University has so far not attained a high status. In retrospect, there is thinking in academic circles that if the Government colleges had not been transferred to the universities and if the universities had confined themselves to professional education and Post-graduate and research studies in Arts, Science, Commerce and Social Sciences, they might have achieved the desired results.

In the University of Udaipur, the disharmony between the Agricultural wing and non-Agricultural wing poses the main problem and it has retarded its growth.

In view of the growing problems of the universities mentioned above, the Government set up a Committee under the Chairmanship of Professor M.V. Mathur to review the development of higher education in the State in the past three decades and to suggest changes in the organization of its three universities with special reference to:

- (1) delinking of the Degree Colleges situated at Jaipur from the University of Rajasthan;

- (2) reorganization of the University of Udaipur, and to separate the Agricultural education wing completely from the General education wing;



(3) distribution of the affiliated colleges in the State in the three regions; and

(4) limiting the responsibility of the three State Universities to graduate teaching and research.

The Committee has submitted its report and it is hoped that the Committee has given serious thought to these issues while framing its recommendations.

*The Role of Director of Education:* When the State of Rajasthan was formed in 1949, Colleges were controlled from the Secretariat. This situation continued till 1958. By this time a number of new colleges had been opened. The Government felt the need of creating a separate Directorate of College Education and it was created in 1958. Administrative control of colleges was transferred to the Directorate of College Education and they were placed under the charge of the Director of College Education who is Head of the Department. He is an Adviser to the Government on matters pertaining to Collegiate Education and is responsible to the Government through the Education Secretary in the Secretariat. He exercises administrative control over all Government colleges other than Medical, Engineering, Nursing, Ayurvedic and Sanskrit through inspection, release of grant, audit of college accounts and maintenance of standards. He exercises all powers relating to appointment and disciplinary action relating to subordinate staff and has been delegated powers to make appointment and transfer of lecturers. As regards aided colleges, he has powers to sanction grant-in-aid to colleges at the rates approved by the Government and to get their accounts audited. He has also power to accord approval for appointment of lecturers in aided colleges. He is an ex-officio member of the Syndicate of all the Universities in the State and is expected to keep the Government informed about lapses/irregularities, if any, of the Universities.

#### SUGGESTIONS

We have discussed above briefly some of the distinctive and innovative features of higher education in the State. It is, however, necessary to consider a few important points with a view to making higher education more purposeful:

(a) It is high time for the State Government to realize that its higher education is in need of reconstruction and, to my mind, reconstruction has four aspects: expansion, improvement of quality,

transformation and accountability. The new programmes of expansion have been accorded highest priority. Programmes of qualitative improvement have received comparatively less attention and those which would help in transforming the apparatus of higher education and in relating it more closely to life and aspirations of the people and accountability on the part of the University, have generally been neglected. These priorities will have to be reversed. Much restraint will have to be exercised in the expansion of higher education. There are a large number of Post-graduate Colleges, but there are hardly half a dozen Post-graduate Colleges worth the name. Government upgraded 15 Degree Colleges to Post-graduate level in one year about three years ago without appointing competent teachers for Post-graduate subjects and without providing adequate library facilities. This is bound to lower the standard of Post-graduate education. It is suggested that seven to eight old established Post-graduate Colleges should be selected and these colleges should be provided adequate finances for development of libraries, laboratories and research facilities. Senior positions of the ranks of Professors and Readers should be created in these colleges to attract eminent scholars. As regards appointment of lecturers, they should be appointed after due selection from amongst lecturers working in other Government Colleges. Effort should be made to raise the level of these colleges to mini-university status.

(b) The University of Rajasthan has become too unwieldy. It has over 15,000 students on roll in its teaching wing and over 1 lakh students in affiliated colleges. There are over 170 affiliated colleges. It has lost its reputation. In retrospect we should admit that a great mistake was committed in transferring Government Colleges in Jaipur city to the University in 1962. There is now an urgent need to reorganize its structure. Steps should be taken to develop this University as a centre for post-graduate studies and research. As regards under-graduate teaching, the University should admit a limited number of students in under-graduate classes. It should develop Honours courses and attract only good students to these courses. The Government will have to open new Degree Colleges for other students who merely want to join college. Post-graduate classes in the faculties of Arts and Commerce may also be started in these colleges which should be run in the evening. Surplus teaching staff should be absorbed in the new colleges. Consequential to this, a new University will have to be established which will affiliate all the

colleges which are at present affiliated to the University of Rajasthan. Colleges which are at present affiliated with other two universities should also be affiliated to this new University. The great advantage of this measure will be that there will be a common core syllabus for students reading in different courses in colleges in the State. All the existing universities will become teaching universities only.

Like the University of Rajasthan, the University of Udaipur too requires reorganization. It has at present an education wing and an agricultural wing. Due to diversities in method of instruction and evaluation, the relationship between the wings has been far from cordial. Time and again suggestions have been made that the University should be converted into an Agricultural University only. Two alternatives may be considered. Either the two wings should be made autonomous with separate Academic Councils (This was the suggestion of the Mehta Committee also.) Or the University should be converted into an Agricultural University and its other wing should be made an autonomous wing of the University. This may create problems in actual working. In my opinion the Agricultural wing should be taken out from the purview of the University and a separate full-fledged Agriculture University should be established at some suitable place. Such a step will be in accordance with the growing agricultural needs of the State and the policy of the ICAR which has been pressing for establishment of a full-fledged Agriculture University in the State. The University of Udaipur should function as a Teaching University only, with faculties of Arts, Social Sciences, Science, Commerce, Law, Education etc.

As regards the University of Jodhpur, it may be stated that it has problems similar to the University of Udaipur. Engineering faculty has problems of its own and for smooth functioning of this University, it is suggested that the Engineering faculty should be made an autonomous wing of the University. Further, like the University of Rajasthan, this University should also admit a limited number of students in under-graduate classes and should concentrate on Post-graduate studies and research. For surplus under-graduate students, separate colleges may have to be opened either by the Government or by private agencies.

(c) Universities are autonomous. No serious attempt has been made to bring about effective coordination among universities and

other institutions of higher education in the State; nor is there any provision for accountability of the universities to the society. A Co-ordination Committee has been set up by the Government under an executive order which has the Chancellor (Governor of the State) as Chairman and the Education Minister, Education Secretary, Vice-Chancellors of the Universities and the Director of College Education as Members. It meets once or twice a year and common problems are discussed, but it has not proved effective. It is suggested that the Coordination Committee should be set up under an Act and it should be entrusted with the task of coordinating the educational expansion programmes among universities and other educational institutions so as to avoid duplication in efforts and to make the optimum use of the existing physical facilities and help in eliminating wastage in higher education. Provision should also be made in the Acts of the Universities for their accountability to the State Legislature.

## 15

### Working Holidays

J.S. Mehta

THE progress and prosperity of a nation depends upon the best utilization of its materials and human resources. Continuous efforts towards development through these two resources is, therefore, the secret of success. Education is the most vital and potent force that trains the citizens to make the best use of the time, energy and the material resources that they have for an all-round development of the nation.

The above hypothesis leads us towards the concept of "Working Holidays", a programme that ensures the best utilization of time and energy of our younger generation towards their individual as well as social development.

In the existing educational set-up, a gap of long summer vacation between the two sessions breaks the continuity of our educational programme. The students waste their time idly during the vacation and consequently they lose touch with their studies and delink themselves with what they had achieved in the preceding session. On the other hand, a constructive, positive programme for the summer vacation gives the students an opportunity to continue their studies, helps them in removing their difficulties and encourages them to work for the development of the community and the nation.

With this background Rajasthan planned and implemented, on trial basis, the project of "Working Holidays". The results were very encouraging and it was realized that the project could make significant contribution to education. Therefore, in every summer vacation a large number of schools take up this programme. The Director, NCERT, has also very much appreciated the idea and adopted some of the points in the National Integration Camps which are organized by the NCERT.

Under this project the school is kept open during the summer vacation, and the students lead a camp life and participate in a variety of activities organized under a well-planned programme. All

the activities taken up are related to the physical, mental, emotional and social development of the students. The Working Holidays camp, thus, presents before the students an environment which arouses their interest in education and inspires them to strive sincerely for their individual development, thereby making substantial contribution to the economic and social development of the community of which they too are the members.

The following are the salient features of the Working Holidays camp:

*Remedial Classes:* One of the important activities that is taken care of in this programme is the remedial teaching. The students are generally found weak in Science, Mathematics and Languages. As such remedial classes in these three subjects are organized under the guidance of experts. These remedial classes are found very advantageous for the students because in them students, in a limited number, receive direct guidance and individual attention from the teacher, which individual attention is generally not possible in regular classes during the session. The teaching-learning process adopted in these remedial classes is also somewhat different from what is usual. It is pupil-centred. Here, the students and the teacher sit together, try to find out the weak areas, discuss them and plan the teaching programme in consonance with the weak areas of the students. In actual teaching work too, due emphasis is laid on removing the deficiencies of the pupils. The teacher as well as the students are well aware of the objectives they want to achieve and they strive together for the same. These remedial classes give students the opportunity to remove their specific deficiencies and help them in improving their educational standards. Not only the deficient students but the intelligent ones are also equally benefited by this programme. They too are given individual guidance which helps them substantially in their future academic pursuits. Thus, the continuity of studies along with determination to gain something with a sense of purpose provides the students enthusiasm, courage and self-confidence. The result is that they enter the next session with that mental vigour and vital power which leads them to the satisfaction of achievement in the academic field.

*Productive Work-Experience:* The second important activity taken up under the Working Holidays Programme is the scheme of "Earn While You Learn". It is the actual work that makes students understand and appreciate the dignity of labour in its true sense. When

the students are exposed to some productive work-experience and they actually work during the formative years of their school life, they realize its importance. Moreover, they feel immense pleasure when they find that while learning particular craft activities they are not only improving their skills but also gaining something in terms of money. They learn, and they earn too.

In the present programme, due emphasis has been given to this productive work-experience. Here, the student, under the expert guidance of some able teacher, does some productive work. He produces things which bring him economic benefit. Besides this, a well planned programme of Productive Work-Experience inculcates in students the spirit of self-discipline, self-reliance, self-help and co-operation. This activity has, therefore, been given equal weightage in the programme of working holidays. It is expected of the students that while improving their academic standards they should also learn something which helps them in developing their skills and personality.

*Library Services:* It is said, "The greatest benefit to learners after the master is a good library." But during the regular sessions the students are mostly busy with their textbooks and they do not get enough time and opportunity for extra reading in the fields of Arts, Literature, Culture and Science. The vacations are the best time to utilize for the purpose. The library services are also, therefore, emphasized in the programme. The students, under the guidance of their teachers, study appropriate books, take notes and keep records. The contents of the books studied by the students are further discussed in groups. A complete plan of the library reading programme is chalked out and strictly followed. The achievements are finally assessed at the end of the programme.

This type of systematic library service is very essential in every educational programme. It develops in students not only study habits and the skill of consulting reference books but also an interest and aptitude of reading good literature during their leisure hours. In the programme of Working Holidays, specific time is provided for library reading to the students who, thus, get an opportunity to extend the boundaries of their knowledge in a planned and systematic manner.

*Games, Sports and Physical Education:* A regular Physical Education programme including games and sports is also one of the important ingredients of the whole programme. In regular sessions

all the students do not get opportunity to participate in games and other physical activities. Here, in the Working Holidays camp, due emphasis has been given to the physical activities, so that the students may be given opportunity to improve their health along with the development of their minds. In the time-table of the camp, particular hours in the morning and in the evening are exclusively devoted to physical activities and games. The students are divided into groups and they are given regular practice. These physical activities help the students not only in improving their health and physique but also inculcating in them the cardinal virtues of humanity including patience, prudence, sportsmanship, fortitude, temperance and justice.

*Social Service:* "The school is society's instrument for moulding the young, transmitting the cultural heritage for inculcating values, ideals and modes of behaviour on which both the continuity and evolution of humanity depend," says W.D. Wall in his book *Education and Mental Health*. For realizing the above purpose the school should come in close contact with the community. A complete programme of community service, thus, should be one of the most important activities at all the stages of our educational system, and the vacations are the best time for rendering social service. In the Working Holidays programme community service has been taken up as an important activity. Here, in a planned manner, the students work for the community. They clean the neighbourhood and the village; they organize literacy classes; they whitewash and repair their school and other public buildings. Under this activity they also work for eradicating superstitions, orthodox beliefs and other social evils by contacting people and explaining to them the disasters they bring to the society.

They collect books for the book banks from successful students and from other sources. They actively participate in every programme relating to the development of the community. This activity, thus, provides a fair and dependable basis for bringing the community nearer to school and inculcating in young minds basic virtues such as favourable attitude towards dignity of labour, sense of equality and homogeneity amongst all, respect for workmanship and a sense of cooperation and mutual help.

The programme of "Working Holidays", as discussed above, is a vital necessity for filling in the gaps in our young people's education by utilizing the gap of time, i.e., summer vacation. The five



main factors included in the programme are very essential for harmonious and all-round development of the future citizens of the nation. The programme, as a whole, not only gives the students opportunity to utilize the long summer vacation in a better way but also helps them to learn more and strive for their physical and social development. It also encourages them to develop their capacity to earn a living and adjust themselves to society as happy and balanced individuals with a proper sense of social responsibility and an ardent desire to serve the community for the common benefit of all.

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# Tourism Development

V.K. Gaur

R A J A S T H A N today attracts more than one hundred thousand foreign tourists belonging to a wide cross-section of nationalities, ages, incomes, etc. They come by all the major means of transport—rail, road and air. They may belong to diverse backgrounds and cultures and may have divergent tasks but more and more of them are unanimous in their praise for Rajasthan—its colour and culture, history and monuments, arts and crafts, wildlife, fairs and festivals. In short, the “tourism product” the State offers has an immense appeal and potential.

The efforts at tourism development stand out in sharp relief when considered against the fact that in 1955 the State received only fifteen hundred foreign tourists. And innovative measures acquire greater relevance when considered in today’s context: a scene marked with intense inter-regional and intra-regional competition where only the innovative will survive.

Probably the earliest administrative innovation in the field of tourism in Rajasthan was the establishment of an office of Organizer, Tourist Facilities, in the summer of 1956. Rajasthan was among the first few States of India to have realized the economic significance of tourism and to make coordinated and concerted efforts at the Government level to develop and diversify this activity and to project tourism as an area into which Government investment could flow.

However, it must go to the credit of the Government of India to have realized the tourism potential of Rajasthan even earlier and having established a tourist information office at Jaipur as early as 1955. Both these offices have played significant roles in promoting tourism to the State and bringing the industry to its present state.

*Organization Development:* The small beginning in the shape of the office of Organiser, Tourist Facilities, provided the nucleus around which the future officials’ activity proliferated and later blossomed into a full-fledged Directorate. The most important administrative decision after establishment of the department was

taken in 1976 when the Director was given ex-officio powers of a Deputy Secretary to the Government. This was again a recognition of the increasing importance of tourist activity and the imperative need to strengthen the organization, to allow it to take quickly and at its own level more important decisions than it could otherwise take. Subsequently, however, the Director ceased to function as Deputy Secretary also.

Between these two epoch-making events the department took many steps to develop skills and expertise. A number of officers were deputed for training at various courses in India and abroad. During 1977 all tourist officers and assistant tourist officers were put through short-term reorientation courses in collaboration with the Food Craft Institute.

*Infrastructure Development:* It has been a common complaint of home tourists that infrastructure development in the field of tourism has tended to tilt more in favour of the foreign tourist and the affluent Indians. In Rajasthan, however, there has been a happy blend of the requirements of the rich and the not so rich. Side by side with air-conditioned rooms, one can come across the modest dormitory. Almost immediately with the establishment of the department, steps were initiated towards constructing tourist accommodation and the first tourist bungalow became operative at Jaipur in 1959. Today, the Rajasthan Tourism Development Corporation runs the largest single chain of tourist accommodation in Rajasthan.

Apart from constructing tourist accommodation on its own, the department secured an important decision by the State Government that sites earmarked for hotels would be auctioned to genuine hoteliers only at a "notional" price which was only to determine the annual lease money. The same principle was applied to agricultural land privately purchased by hoteliers and converted into urban land for this purpose. Thus hoteliers had to find less capital and annual lease money payments became part of annual profit and loss accounts for purposes of income-tax. This policy led to two new five-star hotels in Jaipur by conversion of old palaces into hotels.

The department took another offbeat step in 1977 by starting a "one-window" service for entrepreneurs desiring to set up hotels in Rajasthan. As a direct result of this action, there came about a big spurt in hotel-building activity in the State. The services provided under this scheme cover market and investment information, assistance in site selection, seeking approval of various authorities for site and plans follow up with financial institutions, etc.

The State Government is now also more actively involved in the process of approval and classification of hotels, which is primarily done by the Government of India. Standing Committees have been formed for each district for approval of tourist projects like hotels, camping sites, etc.

The department also took note of the changing pattern of transport used by tourists. For various reasons, a substantial tourist movement now takes place by road. This necessitated provision of facilities on the highways. There are two National Highways passing through Rajasthan, namely, No. 8 from Delhi to Bombay and No. 11 from Bikaner to Agra; Jaipur is situated on both. Small tourist complexes, mainly consisting of modern, clean toilets and restaurants with well-kept lawns, have been commissioned at Behror on National Highway No. 8 and Mahuwa on the National Highway No. 11. They were appropriately passed as Midway one equi-distant from Delhi and Jaipur and the other from Agra and Jaipur. These complexes were an instant success. More spots on other sectors of the two national highways have now been identified for construction of similar facilities. Existing Midways are being expanded to cope with the larger demand.

Rajasthan has also been a pioneer in introducing conducted tours for city sight-seeing, the facility now being available at eight places in the State. A second step has now been taken with the introduction of package tours to different places of tourist interest in the State.

Tourist shopping was a neglected area for a long time with the result that a wide field was left for unscrupulous operators. The department made an effort at regulations through a many-pronged programme. In the first place, the conducted tours were made to stop only at Government emporia. Secondly, the Rajasthan Small Industries Corporation, which operates the Government emporia, was requested to open counters at all tourist bungalows and even at the Midways. Thirdly, a scheme of registration and approval was introduced for establishments catering to tourists. The scheme placed on the registered and approved establishments an obligation to maintain ethical business practices.

*Social and Cultural Tourism:* It is now widely recognized that India's people and culture are among the major motivating factors in attracting foreign tourists. Market studies have also amply borne out this fact. Rajasthan, indeed, is in the front rank with regard to organizing cultural attractions.

A major effort at "selling culture" was made in 1975 with the projections of the Pushkar fair near Ajmer, an event of unquestionable charm, colour and authentic rural character. This is a fair of great religious significance for Hindus who come to bathe in the holy waters of the Pushkar lake. It is also a great cattle fair. The response is overwhelming: travel agents are now seeking information and booking tent accommodation more than two years in advance. The department has now made cultural promotion an integral part of its activity. Elephant races and elephant and camel polo at Jaipur have also proved tremendously popular. The Nagaur Cattle Fair, the traditional Teej and Gangaur religious festivals at Jaipur, Desert Festival at Jaisalmer and Mewar festival at Udaipur are only a few of a long list of traditional and departmentally sponsored cultural events which now attract large numbers of tourists; even ill-timed and unattractive Press advertisements bring in a few hundred of them. To provide reasonably comfortable temporary accommodation at these fairs, the department now organizes rows of tents with modern sanitary facilities.

One of the major gaps of tourist infrastructure in India is lack of evening entertainment. The department tried to fill this gap to an extent by organizing weekly shows of tourism films at the Gangaur Tourist Bungalow at Jaipur where tourists from all hotels in the town were welcome. Later, the programme was diversified with the introduction of occasional puppet shows and magic performances. And now every full-moon night a *Paryatan Sandhya* (Tourists Evening) is held at Jaipur. The department provides a stage performance or a film show or some other form of entertainment for the tourists.

A completely novel effort at People-to-People tourism was made in 1977 with the introduction of the Home Visit Scheme. The idea was to let the tourists come nearer the people, meet and talk to them in the informal atmosphere of a home and carry back with them the memories of people rather than just of monuments. To an extent, this scheme was also envisaged to mitigate the dullness of blank evenings. The initial response was very encouraging (See Appendix I) but some lack of enthusiasm on the part of the department itself and the language problem of groups of foreigners, which had only one or two English-speaking guides, led to the abandoning of this scheme. One hopes a brilliant idea like this will be given a fresh start. It would be welcomed not only by the tourists who look forward to something refreshing and different but also by the two

hundred families of Jaipur who had registered for the scheme and were looking forward to the rewarding experience of meeting in their homes a wide variety of foreigners.

*Marketing and Publicity:* The stage for a purposeful selling of Rajasthan in the modern sense was set by the London Exhibition of Tourism and Handicrafts organized in 1976 by the department and the Rajasthan Small Industries Corporation, the first such effort on international scale. The 250th Anniversary of Jaipur offered another opportunity and was fully exploited to project Rajasthan as a whole on the world stage with the active cooperation of the Government of India. Among the major marketing steps was the familiarization tours of Rajasthan by Indian experts drawn from important tourist generating countries.

A number of imaginative steps have since been taken for promotion of new destinations, opening new areas, and popularizing new events. Marketing of Pushkar and other cultural events has already been mentioned above. Jaisalmer in particular and the desert in general is another example. The result: from 122 foreign tourists in 1974 the figure rose to more than three thousand in 1978. There has been a general spurt in economic activity in the town which has proved to be a hot favourite with French groups. After the successful marketing of Jaisalmer, the second logical step was to promote Rajasthan only as a destination in India and Air-India has already planned a package which would give Rajasthan a place of pride in the total itinerary. "Destination Rajasthan" may not be a distant dream now.

A vigorous promotion of the desert and Pushkar has brought forth a by-product, *viz.*, the camel tours. A number of travel agents now propose to their clients to do a part of the travel by camel. Rajasthan now attracts many other types of tours also like trekking tours, cycle tours, children's and youth tours, wildlife tours, etc.

Publicity and marketing has to be backed by a commensurate communication effort. In order to keep a constant dialogue with the trade and others interested in tourism, the department started in late 1976 a monthly newsletter. Apart from the production and distribution of literature, the department also launched the first commercial film on its own in 1976. The department's efforts were crowned with glory in 1979 with three coveted awards falling to it.

A very important promotional activity which the department has been undertaking for many years in collaboration with the

Jaipur office of the Government of India's Department of Tourism is familiarization and hosting (See Appendix II). A method through which one can talk to potential tourists through their own media and in a manner and a language which makes impact upon them, this activity has, to a large extent, provided the much needed communication support to the marketing efforts. The innumerable teams of writers, photographers, journalists, film makers, radio and TV men who have covered Rajasthan have given to their audiences motivating glimpses of the State and the total money value of this publicity now runs into millions of dollars. Rajasthan is also one of the very few States which have got the tourist potential surveyed and an action plan prepared by experts.

*Preservation of Environment:* A common complaint against tourism in many countries has been that it leads to destruction of environment and consequent upsetting of the ecological balance, which may be very fragile in many places. While there have, no doubt, been instances of such disruption of environment, there seems to be no reason why it must always lead to disastrous consequences. In fact, in some cases it does lead to a greater awareness of environmental preservation and to inflow of investment to places which had otherwise no chances of attracting industrial investment and hence could be for long deprived of economic gains. Talking of Rajasthan, we may take a few examples to see how administrative measures can stave off ecological disaster.

Jaisalmer is a town with a peculiar architectural charm which proved to be the strongest selling point in favour of the place. But it also has a fragile environment. The State Government promptly recognized this. A master plan was prepared by the Town Planning Department requiring that all new construction must blend with the total character of the city. The Local Self-Government Department of the State sanctioned money to pave with stones the streets leading to the famous *havelis* (mansions) so that modern-looking black-topped streets do not mar the aesthetics. The Archaeological Department woke up to the need for better preservation of the Fort and other monuments; some buildings were even acquired by the Government for proper preservation by the Archaeological Department.

Mount Abu is the only hill station in Rajasthan and the neighbouring State, Gujarat. The total economy of the place revolves round religion and tourism. Its famous Dilwara Temple contains the

finest examples in the world of the marble. It was observed a few years ago that denudation of forests was leading to climatic deterioration and the place might soon be unable to afford the cool comfort for which people come. Immediate afforestation plans were set in motion. A special Mount Abu Development Committee was constituted and Rs. 5 lacs per year was set apart for development and improvement. The local officer of the Tourism Department has been made incharge of municipal administration. Many new tourist spots have been developed in Mount Abu and old ones improved or restored.

Efforts are also being made to retain the original rural charm of the Pushkar fair and to preserve the environment during fairs at Pushkar and the Urs of Khwaja Mohiuddin Chisti in Ajmer when there is an enormous influx for a short duration.

This is only a short description of some tourist development measures taken in Rajasthan over the last 25 years. Attention has been limited to only such steps which were pioneering and off-beat; the discussion is by no means exhaustive, for the purpose here was not to produce an administration report but to highlight innovations. As mentioned elsewhere, tourism is a highly competitive business and must be run on sound professional lines. According to a study of the United Nations, tourism could become the most important single economic activity in the world by the year 2000 A.D. And only the innovative will be able to reap the benefits.

#### APPENDIX I

### Select Reactions to Home Visit Scheme for Foreign Tourists

(1) Many thanks for a wonderful evening that I spent in your home. I shall always remember India and especially my visit with you and your lovely family with much warmth.

(2) One of the highlights of our trip to India was our visit to your house. We were so pleased to be invited. Then, the warmth and kind attention offered made us feel completely at ease. We were happy for the opportunity to exchange ideas and ask questions. The only way to learn about a country is to meet its people and we cherish the opportunity you offered us that night. We hope we will meet again.



(3) I greatly enjoyed my visit and think it is an excellent idea to have . . . visitors meet Indian people directly in their houses. Every one of our group members felt it was a highlight of our tour. We hope we can continue these visits. We are sure India will benefit from the greater knowledge we acquired of your lovely country.

*Source: Paryatan*, monthly Newsletter of the Department of Tourism, Rajasthan Government.

## APPENDIX II

### Familiarization and Other Visits through Government of India Tourist Office, Jaipur

#### **Year 1978**

##### **A. Television Teams:**

(1) Mr. Laurie Rayan's Teams from Australia—in Jaipur.

(2) Tokyo Broadcasting team for the specific project of "Children of the World". The scenes were shot in conjunction with the Pushkar fair.

(3) Belgian T.V. Team—on the major tourist spots of Rajasthan—Jaipur, Udaipur, Bikaner, Jaisalmer and Jodhpur.

(4) Italian Team—Jaipur, Udaipur, Bikaner, Jodhpur and Jaisalmer.

(5) Tokyo Broadcasting System—Jaipur, Bundi and Kota.

**B.** A total of 33 individuals/teams of travel writers and photographers visited Rajasthan. While some of them were representing particular magazines, others were columnists and some representing our advertising agents.

**C.** 13 groups of Travel agents came to Rajasthan.

#### **Special Events**

Participants of the convention of Society of American Travel Writers visited Jaipur and Udaipur. Special Programmes were drawn up for them to assess the tourism plans here.

#### **Meetings/Talks**

Periodical meetings, at least once a month, are being held with those concerned with tourism. We had delivered talks to students of Post-graduate Diploma Course in Tourism and Hotel

Management of Rajasthan University and to guide trainees of the Department of Tourism.

### Year 1979

- (1) 2 Television Teams.
- (2) 10 groups of writers.
- (3) 7 Agents' groups.

*Source:* Government of India Tourist Office, Jaipur.

### APPENDIX III

#### Foreign Tourists' Arrivals at Important Places

<i>Sl. No.</i>	<i>Place</i>	<i>1974</i>	<i>1975</i>	<i>1976</i>	<i>1977</i>	<i>1978</i>
1.	Jaipur	39791	44837	61436	82540	102175
2.	Udaipur	9221	11172	14506	19343	25566
3.	Ajmer	1221	1331	1550	2294	2527
4.	Jodhpur	612	383	3234	5556	6516
5.	Mount Abu	732	1184	1203	1958	2232
6.	Chittorgarh	261	359	669	694	1209
7.	Bharatpur	2645	947	5745	6615	11956
8.	Siliserh	160	168	117	131	—
9.	Bundi	38	50	63	77	96
10.	Sariska	657	3575	1313	1359	1406
11.	Kota	24	210	275	1250	1462
12.	Nathdwara	—	11	47	78	135
13.	Jaisalmer	122	1236	1661	2141	3451
14.	Pushkar	297	246	456	1076	1404
Total		55781	66207	92275	125112	160135

*Source:* Department of Tourism, Government of Rajasthan.

APPENDIX IV  
Number of Foreign Tourists in Rajasthan and  
Income from them

<i>Year</i>	<i>Tourists (No.)</i>	<i>Income (Lakhs)</i>
1955	1,500	3.00
1956	2,500	5.00
1957	6,600	12.00
1958	9,000	19.00
1959	11,000	22.00
1960	15,000	30.00
1961	20,000	40.00
1962	21,000	42.00
1963	25,000	50.00
1964	28,000	57.00
1965	25,200	50.40
1966	28,000	56.00
1967	30,000	60.00
1968	31,500	63.00
1974	55,781	
1975	66,781	
1976	92,275	
1977	125,112	
1978	100,134	

*Source:* Department of Tourism, Government of Rajasthan.

APPENDIX V  
Anticipated Increase in Tourist Arrivals

<i>Year</i>	<i>Home</i>	<i>Foreign</i>
1980	2,462,027	1,66,535
1981	2,831,331	1,83,175
1982	3,256,030	2,01,492
1983	3,744,434	2,27,641

*Source:* Department of Tourism, Government of Rajasthan.

## Climbing the Civil Service Pyramid Faster than Others

Mohan Mukerji

GOVERNMENT service has always been considered to be a very good career by Indians, except those who have family traditions or connections (proper or improper) to encourage them to take to business, handicrafts, technical trades, professions or to farming. In a country with a vast population, widespread poverty and consequent feelings of insecurity about earning one's living, it is but natural that government service is found attractive, especially the civil service where, unlike the armed forces, there is also no chance of risking life in war thrice in thirty years. All civil services are subject to detailed rules for recruitment, mostly through some system of assessing merit. Even those recruited for purely temporary work initially can look forward to eventual permanency. Article 311 of the Constitution of India grants protection against issue of orders of removal or dismissal from service or demotion to a lower grade without formal charges, enquiry and serving of a notice detailing grounds for imposing any such major penalty. At the end of every year comes the annual increment in pay, irrespective of the past performance of a person. There are various "perks" like highly subsidized housing for the fortunate few (others being forced to be content with House Rent Allowance which is sometimes unrealistic) and free medicare. Finally, after "superannuation" at the age of 55 in Rajasthan and a few other States or at 58 in the Central Government and most other States, there is a lump-sum death-cum-retirement gratuity and a monthly pension.

All This and Promotion Too—with due apologies to the author of the delightful book *All This and Heaven Too*—is the normal expectation of all civil servants in India.

The appropriate visualization of the civil services in India is a pyramid built up with a large number of smaller pyramids of varying size, each made of a different variety of stone. This applies to

the Central as well as the State Governments. There are numerous water-tight service "Cadres" constituting each small pyramid. Every such cadre has direct recruitment at the base, that is, the lowest grade of post in that cadre. Thereafter, one climbs up the pyramid to next higher and still higher grades by promotion. Nobody from the base or higher grade of one pyramid can expect to be appointed to a higher grade in another pyramid. There are a few exceptions. For example, the base of the Rajasthan Secretariat Service (the RSS, not to be confused with a well-known socio-political cadre-based organization in India!) consists of Section Officers, all promoted from among Secretariat Assistants; in the Rajasthan Medical Service (Collegiate Branch) there is provision for 'lateral entry' at a higher grade because 50 per cent of posts of Readers are filled by direct recruitment.

In this pyramid of civil services, key smaller pyramids are formed by the three All India Services, the Indian Administrative Service (IAS), the Indian Police Service (IPS) and the Indian Forest Service—(IFS but not to be confused with the Indian Foreign Service which is a Central Service). Care is taken through direct recruitment procedures that about 50 per cent of the officers of these services, which man most of the top level posts in the States as well as at the Centre, within each State cadre are not natives of that State.

Promotion usually means that higher posts are filled exclusively by appointing persons holding the next lower grade of post and in considering the persons in the lower grade names are considered in the order of seniority. This term, "seniority", in turn means the order in which names are to be considered for promotion! Normally, seniority in the case of direct recruits appointed by the same process of selection follow the order of merit in which the selecting authority, like the Public Service Commission, had placed the names. Deviations take place where there are Special Selections when some suitable formulae are devised. Similarly, when services of different States were integrated into new States, with all the erstwhile Maharajas and Nawabs giving up their ruling powers, various formulae to determine seniority within each newly created service were invented. The same or similar process was adopted when large-scale reorganization of the States of India took place in 1956.

That promotion should not be strictly according to seniority has been an accepted principle in the Central Government for many

years. However, in Rajasthan, the process of Integration of Services involved screening and selection on merit from among the employees of erstwhile princely States of varying size and reputation for good administration. This process was largely completed by 1954, that is, five years after the formation of the pre-reorganization State in 1949. The process was again repeated, with some important variations, when the present State of Rajasthan was formed with the merger of the erstwhile Part III State of Ajmer, Mount Abu portion of erstwhile Saurashtra, Sunel Tappa area of erstwhile Madhya Bharat and the loss of Sironj to the newly reorganized State of Madhya Pradesh.

Thus for another about ten years, promotions in Rajasthan were on the basis of seniority subject to suitability, which only meant that a person was superseded only if his record was such that he was considered unfit for promotion. Even in the case of promotions from the State civil and police services to the IAS and IPS many supersessions took place only during the first year of such promotions, namely, 1954, but thereafter, generally, seniority in the Rajasthan Administrative Service (RAS) and Rajasthan Police Service (RPS) was honoured.

Actually, a belief developed in official circles that the relative importance given to merit *vis-a-vis* seniority depended much upon whether the Chief Secretary was himself an officer who had climbed up the pyramid at a fast rate on merit or had merely reached the top through age and long years of service!

✓ The Rajasthan Government appointed an Administrative Reforms Committee in 1961. Accepting one of the recommendations of that committee the Government issued a notification dated October 14, 1965, bringing about amendments in various service rules promulgated from 1954 onwards under the proviso to Article 309 of the Constitution. This common amendment to many service rules prescribed that thenceforth appointments by promotion within all services should be made by selection strictly on the basis of merit and on the basis of seniority-cum-merit in the proportion of 50 : 50.

The weight of the mediocre is very heavy. Organizations of Government employees represented against the proportion of 50 : 50. The Government yielded partially. Later the proportion between merit and seniority-cum-merit was amended to 1 : 2.

On August 27, 1966, the Appointments (A-II) Department

of the Government issued detailed instructions as to how the Departmental Promotion Committees (DPCs) should determine what was "merit" and what was to determine right of promotion by "seniority-cum-merit". According to those instructions, 50 marks were allotted for the past record with deductions being made for adverse entries, penalties, etc. To this was to be added a maximum of 5 marks by an overall assessment of the Annual Confidential Report relating to each of the 5 years preceding the year in which the DPC was held. The 5 marks or less in a year depended upon the ACR being assessed as "Excellent" or "Very Good" or "Good" or "Satisfactory" or "Adverse". Persons securing a total of at least 68 marks or above were entitled to promotion by merit only. For being promoted on the basis of seniority-cum-merit, a person had to secure at least  $62\frac{1}{2}$  marks. After promotions in a few services had taken place according to the new rules prescribing the ratio of 1 : 2 for merit promotion if a newly promoted official was found to be just ordinary he was referred to as being *Sade-baassath Wala* (the  $62\frac{1}{2}$  man)!

As for *inter se* seniority among those promoted by merit only, according to the original notification of October 14, 1965, the range of choice extended to ten times the number of vacancies and names of persons selected on merit were arranged in order of preference, which was the order in which they were to be promoted by merit only. Promotion by merit was thus treated almost in the same manner as a process of direct recruitment with competition being restricted to persons in the next lower grade eligible for promotion and within the range of choice.

Some officers of the RAS, who were superseded by their juniors because of promotions by merit only in the first promotions which took place under the new scheme, went to the Rajasthan High Court with writ petitions challenging the new rules as well as the instructions regulating promotion by merit. From the High Court the cases went to the Supreme Court. In Civil Appeal No. 1815 of 1970, *Guman Singh v. State of Rajasthan*, the Constitution Bench of the Supreme Court upheld the amendment made in the RAS rules introducing the principle of promotion by merit, but struck down the detailed instructions issued by the Government on August 27, 1966, about how marks were to be given while assessing a person. These instructions were therefore withdrawn by a circular dated September 23, 1971.

After this important court decision fresh meetings of each

DPC were convened and they took decisions about persons considered suitable for promotion by merit on the basis of their own assessment of the ACR's without being tied to a procedure which had tried to convert "remarks" into "marks". Some other features of the merit promotions which had been introduced as part of the procedure followed after the Supreme Court decision were:

(1) If persons suitable for promotion by merit were not available, vacancies could be filled on the basis of seniority-cum-merit.

(2) Posts up to Pay Scale No. 11 (Eleven), that is, posts of the rank of Upper Division Clerk and equivalent grades were to be filled only on the basis of seniority-cum-merit.

(3) Persons selected on the basis of merit were not eligible to be again selected for further promotion by merit for five years unless their junior in that grade had become eligible for promotion on the basis of minimum qualifying service in lower post, if any prescribed, or other grounds.

(4) Persons selected by merit continued to have their names arranged in order of preference but actual appointments to the higher grade were to be made on the basis of the *inter se* seniority of the persons in the merit list. Thus among persons selected as suitable for promotion by merit only, the more meritorious could not supersede his senior.

(5) Among persons selected by merit and by seniority-cum-merit for the same occasion, the latter would rank senior. This meant that if a very senior person found a place in the merit list, he would get his actual promotion earlier if it was due even if he had been assessed as suitable on the basis of seniority-cum-merit only.

(6) The highest post would be filled by merit only.

While these important changes were taking place on the issue of promotion by merit only, from 1971 onwards another crucial change was brought about in the system of water-tight service cadres. In order to secure World Bank assistance for the general economic development of the Rajasthan Canal area, where most of the land due to get irrigation had never been cultivated and population was also very sparse, an organization was created in the Agriculture Department of the State Secretariat, which was already closely linked with the Directorate of Community Development and Panchayats with a Development Commissioner heading the whole organization dealing with agriculture, animal husbandry, fisheries, sheep and wool, ground water exploitation, cooperatives and Panchayat bodies.



The new organization not only took up the task of preparing a project report for the Rajasthan Canal area development, but was made responsible for preparation as well as implementation of various schemes, big and small, involving investment of Government or cooperative or bank funds in such a manner that the social benefits calculated over a number of years could be shown to be higher than the social costs, the old concepts of a reasonable financial return being given only a secondary place in policy decisions about such schemes. It soon became obvious that this Special Schemes Organization (SSO) could become effective only if posts of Project Officer and Project Director could be manned by officers of different disciplines, who could be tried on these new types of duties for some time and then either retained for long or reverted to their original post if found unsuitable.

The SSO was soon entrusted with some specific "plan" schemes of the Central Government already in operation within each State. These were the Small Farmers Development Agencies (SFDA), Marginal Farmers and Agriculture Labour (MFAL), and Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP). These schemes had a common feature—loan funds came from the cooperative sector or the banks while grants came from governmental sources; hence to handle such funds there had to be a body separate from "government" (which can handle only funds voted by the legislature and so unspent amounts at the end of a financial year would lapse). This legally non-governmental body was created by establishing registered "Societies" in each district of which the Collector and District magistrate was the Chairman. In reality, therefore, the responsibilities for these schemes continued to be that of the civil services, at the State secretariat, various technical "Directorates" and at the district and lower levels.

The SSO has evolved a procedure of inviting applications from government servants already holding jobs in different disciplines down to a particular grade. From among applicants who are also recommended by their own Head of Department as suitable, after a preliminary screening of the records, applicants are interviewed by a Selection Committee presided over by the Chief Secretary of the State. Those selected are posted as Project Officer or Project Director, depending upon the size of a project. Some of them are posted as such in the SSO itself which enables this organization to have the multi-disciplinary expertise necessary to prepare and supervise schemes of various types. While posted as Project Officer or Project

Director a person draws pay in the pay scales attached to these posts and such pay is usually higher than what they would have drawn had they continued in their parent cadre. At the same time they retain all their rights in their parent cadre, including the right of promotion—if they find that they have a better career prospect in their parent cadre, they can go back.

I came back to Rajasthan in July 1975 to become the Chief Secretary during almost the whole of the "Emergency." Prior to this I had done my only stint in the Central Government for a little over two years as the first Additional Secretary in the Department of Culture along with being also Additional Secretary in the Department of Education looking after higher technical education.

The "Emergency" was a period of "strong government." There was a positive desire to improve administration. I took this opportunity to suggest that the promotion procedures which had taken shape by that time, with merit promotion taking place in the ratio of 1 : 2 in all grades above Scale No. 11 (as already explained in detail) deserved re-examination. During my short spell in the Central Government I had seen in actual operation the system of a large number of posts being filled by what their rules described as "Selection" or a whole grade being described as "Selection Grade." The Central Ministry of Home Affairs had issued an Office Memorandum as early as May 16, 1957, laying down the methods for selecting persons for appointment by promotion within a cadre to Selection posts or to Selection Grade.

My plea was that there was already too much security in government service and the then existing Rajasthan rules providing for two-thirds of higher posts at all levels being filled on the basis of merit-cum-seniority, which really meant promotion for the mediocre who had no seriously adverse record, gave inadequate incentive to employees to show initiative and drive. I expressed my view that along with all the benefits of government service, which have made it so attractive to most Indians, almost automatic promotion should be limited only to the first promotion after the lowest level in each service or cadre; thereafter all further promotions should be on the basis of merit only. For determining merit I wanted to avoid litigation of the type which had followed the introduction of merit promotion for the first time in Rajasthan in 1966. Therefore, I recommended adoption of the time-honoured procedure being followed by the Central Government in filling posts by "Selection" or in

promotions to "Selection Grade". Since that procedure had never been challenged successfully in any of the Central services since 1957, I felt sure that in Rajasthan too the introduction of similar procedure would never lead to any court order striking it down.

I discussed my ideas with a group of officers who were then holding charge of important posts unconnected with the State Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms but had previously held the post of Special Secretary in that department, as well as with the then incumbent of the post and also with the then Secretary to the Chief Minister. In Rajasthan, as in many other States in India, the Chief Secretary personally functions as Secretary to Government in the Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms. These proposals were given the formal shape of a Memorandum to the Cabinet on July 9, 1975, that is, just two days after I had assumed charge as Chief Secretary.

The Cabinet of Ministers readily approved the proposed changes in the procedure for promotion. A notification was issued on October 31, 1975, amending simultaneously all the service rules. The new procedure of all first promotions within each service being on the basis of seniority-cum-merit and all subsequent promotions being by merit only was made applicable to all posts above posts in Scale No. 11. As already mentioned, these lower posts were not subject to the previously applicable rules under which one-third of annual vacancies were filled by merit promotion only.

The procedure to determine merit was that the concerned DPC would consider all persons within the prescribed range of choice and classify them in order as "Outstanding" or "Very Good" or "Good." The assessment was to be based upon the Annual Confidential Rolls (ACR) and other documents relating to an employee's service record, but the DPC was also permitted to interview persons if considered necessary. Within each classification the *inter se* seniority in the lower cadre was to be maintained.

A minimum period of four years was prescribed as interval between two consecutive merit promotions, but this was relaxable by the Government on the recommendation of the DPC.

In addition to all "in-service" promotions after the first promotion within each service, the new procedure of merit promotion was extended to promotions from a lower service to a higher service. In all the non-technical and non-judicial State services, like the RAS, RPS, RA/CS etc., a percentage of annual vacancies, varying

from 25 per cent to 50 per cent, were filled by promotion from the highest ranks in the Subordinate services performing lower duties of the same department, like Tehsildars, Inspectors of Police, Assistant Accounts Officers, etc. There are a few services, like the RSS mentioned earlier, where the entire recruitment was by promotion from the highest grade in the next lower service. The new procedure of merit promotion was applied 100 per cent to all such promotions from a lower to a higher service.

The earlier rules providing for merit promotion to fill up one-third of the annual vacancies were found to have been misused or misapplied, depending upon whether the *bona fides* of the Head of a Department or Secretary were believed or not! Since the range of consideration was originally 10 times and later five times the vacancies, if DPC meetings were delayed for a whole year or even two years, the number of persons coming within the range of choice would increase very much because of the increasing vacancies each year due to retirement or expansion of a cadre. If there was a really brilliant officer, too junior to come within the range of choice in the first year, postponement of the DPC and consequent substantially widened range of choice would ensure that the very junior person assessed as suitable for merit promotion would supersede a large number of his seniors. To avoid such cases, rules had to be amended to prescribe that if DPCs were not held every year then, at the time they are held, Select Lists would be drawn up with reference to each of the past years; vacancies occurring over a number of years could not be lumped together so as to widen the area of choice deliberately or inadvertently.

This new procedure for promotion by merit only to all posts at levels above that of the first promotion within a service, as well as for all promotions from a lower to a higher service was, naturally, well received by the intelligent, energetic officials who found the possibility of superseding a number of their seniors by securing "Outstanding" classification to be a highly motivating factor. The disappointed ones were those who had been mere plodders. When superseded, some of them represented that they had been originally recruited through a process of strict selection, by examination or interview, and so the differences in the ACRs were due to prejudices of their superiors. There were people who spoke on their behalf. One rather strange plea taken often was that the superseded person had been honest—as if honesty has to be assessed as a special quality

in a government servant!

The new rules having been promulgated on October 31, 1975, DPC under the new rules could be held only once in 1976 for most of the services. I had occasion to go through some of the DPC reports. I found that, contrary to general belief, classification as "Outstanding" was very rare. Usually many a DPC ignored high praise given by the same superior officer year after year. Only those who had secured very appreciative remarks from different superior officers, preferably while performing different jobs, were treated as really "Outstanding."

It would be a matter of interest to mention here that at a conference of Chief Secretaries called by the Central Government during the Emergency, I pointed out that, while for all promotions by Selection or to Selection Grade in Central Services the Home Ministry Memorandum of May 16, 1957, was applicable, the rules regulating promotion from State services to the IAS and IPS did not provide for classification of candidates for promotion into "Outstanding," "Very Good" and "Good". Other Chief Secretaries supported my view. It is a good example of both bureaucratic speed of action and political neutrality that the recommendations of this conference held during the Emergency was actually given effect to by amending the IAS and other rules on June 3, 1977, when the motley group of political parties voted into power with a huge majority as the Janata Party had already been ruling in the Central Government for a few months!

Soon after the establishment of the Janata Party Government at the Centre, the State legislatures were dissolved and President's Rule was imposed. Rajasthan's Governor had resigned to fight the elections as a Congress Party candidate. The Chief Justice was then the Acting Governor. Apparently trusting my bureaucratic impartiality, the new Central Government appointed me as the sole Adviser to the Governor. After a while the new Governor was appointed. Though a resident of the State of Uttar Pradesh, he was no stranger to Rajasthan as he had been a member of the Rajasthan Public Service Commission many years ago. The officials superseded by the new merit promotion rules approached the Janata Party politicians and they in turn requested the Governor that the new rules should not be utilized for holding DPCs till a new popularly elected government was again in power and could re-examine the entire question of merit promotion. It was known to all that in the forthcoming

State elections the Janata Party would come into power. Hence the Governor decided that promotions under the new merit promotion rules should not henceforth take place. The holding of DPCs was thus stayed during the President's Rule.

As expected, the State elections brought into power a Janata Party Government with a substantial majority in the State legislature. I knew that one of the casualties of this change in government would be merit promotion. With the installation of the new government I reverted back to my post of Chief Secretary. In the hope that the new government being also interested in good government would not ignore the views of senior officers, I had a special meeting of all the Secretaries to Government to discuss freely the system of merit promotion. The consensus was that while the DPC for higher services, presided over by a member of the Public Service Commission with concerned Secretary and Special Secretary in the Personnel Department as members, could assess correctly the ACRs (the members often knowing the ACRs of the reporting officers themselves) the DPC for lower services could be dominated by the views of the Head of a Department and the possibilities of a single person having strong likes and dislikes could not be ruled out. The views formulated in this meeting of Secretaries were:

(1) All promotions within Ministerial and Subordinate services should be on the basis of seniority-cum-merit.

(2) Promotions from Subordinate or Ministerial services to a State Service should be on the basis of merit alone.

(3) Within a State service, promotions up to levels below posts in the pay scale of Rs. 1500-1900 (corresponding to old scale 1000-1500; the old scales were all replaced by new scales with effect from September 1, 1976, by merging all forms of Dearness Allowance admissible till that date with pay in the old scales which had been in force since September 1, 1968), should be on the basis of seniority-cum-merit.

(4) Promotions to posts in pay scales 1500-1900 and above should be by merit alone.

(5) The posts in the highest grade in a State service or the highest post in a State service, irrespective of pay scale, should be filled on the basis of merit alone.

(6) Zone of consideration for promotion should be as below:

(a) 1 to 5 vacancies—4 times the number of vacancies;

(b) 6 to 10 vacancies—3 times the number of vacancies;

- (c) Above 10 vacancies—twice the number of vacancies;
- (d) For the highest post in a service, if the promotion is from one channel, five eligible persons should be considered;

If there are more than one channel, two eligible persons from each channel should be considered; and

- (7) Officers selected on the basis of merit alone should maintain their *inter se* seniority as in the lower post.

The last decision was the end of my scheme of 1975, based upon the Central Government rules in force since 1957, that if a comparative junior person within the range of choice was brilliant enough to be assessed as "Outstanding" he should be allowed to supersede his seniors who might be assessed as even "Very Good."

The Janata Government in Rajasthan took some months to consider the entire question of promotion by merit. Finally, about eight months after the meeting of the Secretaries and four months after I had proceeded on leave preparatory to retirement, a detailed notification was issued on March 7, 1978, amending the various service rules to bring into effect the new Government's decisions about promotion by merit only. The main features of these rules were as follows:

(1) All promotions within Ministerial and Subordinate services should be on the basis of seniority-cum-merit only.

(2) Promotions from highest ranks in Ministerial and Subordinate services to posts in the lowest grade in a State service should be made on the basis of seniority-cum-merit as well as merit alone in the ratio of 50 : 50.

(3) Within each State service, the first promotion from the lowest grade should be by seniority-cum-merit.

(4) All subsequent promotions within a State service should be on the basis of seniority-cum-merit as well as merit alone in the ratio of 50 : 50.

(5) Promotion to the highest post or posts in a State service should always be on the basis of merit alone. But, if a service or group of posts has only two grades then promotion should be by merit-cum-seniority only; if a service or group of posts has only three grades (this would apply to important State services like RAS, RPS, RA/CS) then promotions to the highest grade should be on the basis of seniority-cum-merit as well as merit alone in the ratio of 50 : 50.

(6) Zone of consideration for promotion should be as below:

(a) 1 to 5 vacancies—4 times the number of vacancies;  
(b) 6 to 10 vacancies—3 times but at least 20 eligible persons to be considered.

(c) Above 10 vacancies—2 times but at least 30 eligible persons to be considered.

(7) Persons assessed as "Outstanding" or "Very Good" should only be entitled to appointment by merit (unless they are also senior enough to be promoted through seniority-cum-merit). But among persons promoted on merit alone *inter se* seniority in the lower grade should be maintained. Thus, unlike in the Central services, the person classified as "Outstanding" could not supersede his senior classified as "Very Good."

This is the story of the various ways of climbing the civil service pyramid in Rajasthan. To complete the story I have gone beyond my days as Chief Secretary. But I cannot resist the urge to add to this narrative two somewhat relevant matters.

India is one of the poorest countries in the world. Once a Polish official, leading his delegation for talks with me and some officers of the Central Department of Culture, had remarked, "It is wrong to classify India as a Developing Country. It should correctly be called a Developed Poor Country." In spite of poverty, a very large number of young people in our country study in colleges up to Bachelor's or Master's degree in the hope that thereby they will be able to get into better jobs. All this study is partly at public expense and partly at father's expense.

I felt strongly that persons who had accepted low-paid jobs to stand upon their own legs and during years of service in the government had gained useful experience and, some times, even managed to acquire higher academic qualifications through availing of study leave, attending evening classes, or through correspondence courses, should be specially encouraged to compete for higher jobs on equal terms with the young people who could study longer at their father's expense. Therefore, I persuaded the then Chief Minister to all service rules being amended during the Emergency to allow government servants to appear in competitive examinations up to the age of 40, instead of the previous provisions in all rules giving government servants an advantage of only 3 years in maximum age. This has been a major innovation in Rajasthan and it is a matter of great pleasure indeed that this provision still continues in all service rules. Rajasthan Government employees at lower levels thus do not only



have to try to climb the pyramid faster than others but can take at least one big jump.

The other matter is the almost complete dependence on the ACRs. Rajasthan is fortunate enough to have very good State Institute of Public Administration (SIPA). It had some funds to finance study tours abroad by the Director of the Institute and faculty members. As the Chief Secretary is in charge of the Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms and thus, indirectly, of the SIPA and I took keen interest in staff training. A study tour to the USA and U.K. was arranged by the Director of SIPA. Being Chief Secretary of the State during the Emergency I could be away for only two weeks plus travelling time. Among a number of suggestions made by me on my return, one was that in the process of selection on basis of merit only, interview by the DPC should play an important role since such interview may disclose whether ACRs, written by persons of varying capacities to judge a person and to express such judgment in adequate words, correctly depict the merits and deficiencies of a person. The Chief Minister's experience of government was almost as long as mine. He took a very pragmatic approach to the problem. He was frank enough to say that in the atmosphere which prevailed in our country if the interview results were almost the same as the assessment of the ACRs, there would be no objection to the proposed interviews; but, if the interview results showed a wide variation from the assessment of the ACRs, then there will be greater faith in the written ACRs and motives, prejudices, even nepotism will be ascribed to the results of the interview with no respect being shown to the reputation of the members of the DPC as senior and impartial officers because there would be no record of the entire process of interview—there being no desire to tape-record the interview and discussion among the DPC members. I realized that the Chief Minister was wiser. The matter ended with our discussion.

## Administrative Training for Development

Hari Mohan Mathur

ON the contribution of training towards strengthening the administrative capability for urgent development tasks there has been considerable discussion in recent years.<sup>1</sup> Increasingly it is being recognized that administrators to be able to play their development role effectively need training not only at the entry point in service, but also later during their career, at least two or three times. So rapid has become the pace of change now that the skills, knowledge and attitudes needed by the administrators to cope with the growing complexities of development challenge can be kept up at the desired levels only if conscious efforts are made on a continuous basis. Further, an important strand in this thinking is that training is necessary for administrators of all descriptions everywhere.

Against this backdrop of adequately equipping the administrators for the proliferating functions on the development frontiers, training of administrators in the States (as distinct from administrators at the Centre) acquires a very special significance.<sup>2</sup> It is the work State administrators do which is increasingly touching the lives of most people as they primarily are responsible for implementing at the grassroots level the policies and the programmes designed to improve the living conditions of the poorer groups in villages, in towns, and in cities. Policy-making, which broadly is the function of administrators working in the Central Government, does not perhaps require the same degree of physical proximity to the people as the implementation job demands. If development is really to assist the people for whom it ostensibly is being done, it would be necessary to give to the training of State administrators far more importance than it has received in the past. Recommendations urging the State Governments that they initiate steps to establish and/or strengthen the institutional training facilities have frequently been made by various expert groups. Some action undoubtedly has followed, but in this field much still remains to be done.

However in Rajasthan, where no institutional facilities existed

to provide training to its senior administrators until mid-1950s, a rather elaborate training set-up has got established. In the field of training, this State today is surely a long way ahead of all other States in the country. A brief account of the phenomenal growth of training in Rajasthan could be in order at this point.<sup>3</sup>

#### MAJOR DEVELOPMENTS: AN OVERVIEW

Until 1957, Rajasthan wholly depended for the training of its top level administrators on the neighbouring State of Uttar Pradesh. Members of the Indian Administrative Service (IAS) used to go for their training to the Officer Training School (OTS) at Allahabad in Uttar Pradesh. Their field training including some period of service as Sub-Divisional Magistrate also took place in the districts there.

When the first competitive examination for the Rajasthan Administrative Service (RAS) was completed in 1955, the need was felt to do something for their professional preparation within the State. In the beginning the RAS Officers, like the IAS Officers, were also sent to Uttar Pradesh for their training, but the arrangement apparently did not work well enough. In 1957 a decision was therefore taken to establish an Officers' Training School for the State. This truly was a major step forward in the direction of equipping the administrators to face the emerging development tasks.

The OTS was located at Jodhpur, and induction training of RAS Officers started soon after its establishment in 1957. Two years later from 1959 the State and district training of the IAS Officers borne on the Rajasthan cadre also began to be conducted there.

In 1963, the OTS was shifted to Jaipur, the State headquarters. To begin with, it functioned in a rented building. It moved in 1966 to a new complex of buildings on a 70-acre campus located beyond Rajasthan University. On this campus have now come up the Institute building, a four-storeyed hostel block, a guest house, the staff residential enclave and some sports facilities. In 1969 the OTS was renamed as the Harish Chandra Mathur State Institute of Public Administration. This was done to commemorate the memory of a distinguished parliamentarian of Rajasthan, Harish Chandra Mathur, who, with his enormous administrative and parliamentary experience, contributed a great deal to the administrative development effort in the country. SIPA is gradually replacing the commonly

known name OTS for this Institution. Some prefer to simply call it the Institute.

Established to provide induction training as well as in-service training for the top and middle level State administrators, SIPA has been pursuing one clear aim: to contribute to a continuing improvement of administration in Rajasthan with a view to making it an effective instrument of development and change at a pace in step with the rising expectations of the people. To this end, SIPA strives to:

(a) design and conduct training courses appropriate to the specific, identified needs of the administrators and the organizations that they serve;

(b) assist the departments in finding solution to several of their complicated organizational and other problems;

(c) undertake research, mainly on development problems of direct relevance to government agencies, and dissemination through its publications knowledge about current trends and approaches in the broad areas of public administration for socio-economic development; and

(d) serve as a forum for the interchange of ideas and experiences among scholars and practitioners of development and public administration.

Growth of training activity at this Institute has consistently been rapid. Beginning with just one training programme for 17 participants in 1957, the Institute now conducts over 50 programmes for around 1,200 participants every year. Besides training, SIPA has been engaged in some research and consultancy work. But training remains the dominant activity.

At one time there was even a proposal to make it an Institute for the training of administrators in the States of the North Zone. But the other concerned States, namely, Haryana, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and Jammu and Kashmir did not come out fully in support of this idea, and the proposal fell through.

SIPA has attracted considerable notice outside the State. It has in fact organized a number of programmes for outside participants. The Training Division, Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, has lately been sponsoring a number of such programmes.

Training of administrators at the lower levels has also received considerable support in the State. Encouragement has been given to

all the departments to set up their own institutional training arrangements for providing training of a specialized character to their staff. Over 30 departmental training institutions have come up. Among the important ones are the following:

<i>Department</i>	<i>Training Institution</i>
Community Development and Panchayati Raj Social Welfare	State Institute of Community Development and Panchayati Raj, Udaipur M.L.V. Tribal Research and Training Institute, Udaipur
Education RSEB	State Institute of Education, Udaipur Rajasthan State Electricity Board Staff Training Centre, Jaipur
Cooperative Animal Husbandry Forest Medical and Health	Cooperative Training Centre, Jaipur Fisheries Training Centre, Udaipur Forest Training School, Alwar Primary Health Training Centre, Jaipur
Sheep and Wool	Sheep and Wool Training Centre, Jaipur

#### AS THINGS STAND TODAY: INTROSPECTION

While developments in the field of administrative training in the past quarter century have indeed been quite notable, it should not be assumed that all that could possibly have been done is altogether an accomplished fact. Undoubtedly the success has been tremendous, but still it would be worthwhile to see whether something more could not have been done.

At this point of time, it would be good to have a closer look at the achievements as also at the shortcomings. In the following discussion only major gains and deficiencies will figure, mainly for reasons of space. Then, it will be noted that references to SIPA recur frequently, but this is due to the fact that this happens to be an institution better known from all the rest.<sup>4</sup>

*Important Achievements:* Among the more significant achievements in the field of training, the following will easily stand out in any assessment:

(1) From virtually a scratch to a rather impressive training infrastructure which now has come into being within a short period of time it represents growth at a fast pace not achieved in other

States in the country. Partly the national plan to establish training centres on a zonal basis to meet requirements of a group of States had something to do with the scale on which the building for SIPA was planned. But this is not the whole story. It is the determination of the Government to have a satisfactory level of training infrastructure for meeting the training needs of a growing number of civil servants which mainly accounts for the developments that have taken place.

(2) The top-level administrators in Rajasthan have always viewed their role in training in a wider perspective. They have not been content merely with providing the physical facilities, budgetary provisions, teaching faculty, etc. There has been a role of giving to training the support it needs to be effective in its impact.<sup>5</sup> To provide support to SIPA, for example, there is a Training Advisory Committee headed by the Chief Secretary himself. Other members include Secretaries of Department of Finance, Personnel, etc., and some outside experts. The Director, SIPA, is the Member-Secretary. With the involvement of this high-powered committee in training affairs it has been possible for SIPA to obtain all the help it requires in the efficient discharge of its responsibilities and functions.

(3) Emergence of SIPA has created a great training consciousness. There was a time—and not long ago—when training was not thought to be a very productive kind of activity. This lack of enthusiasm towards training was reflected in poor attendance in in-service training courses from various departments. This is not the case today. On the contrary, the Institute sometimes finds it rather embarrassing to decline nominations. People at the top and the officers down the line have all begun to see the great use for training in their work. Departments themselves are seeking help of the Institute in organizing special training courses for staff selected to implement the new style development projects which, with the assistance of the World Bank, the IDA and other financing agencies, are proliferating in Rajasthan. Some departments do not want to launch implementation unless training has been first given to the project staff. By and large, officers look on participation in training programmes at SIPA as something essential to their job, to their career development path.

(4) Number, variety and quality of training programmes for in-service personnel especially conducted at SIPA has been impressive from all accounts. Over the years, the Institute has built

up some experts in organizing training and has acquired considerable training resources. It has an excellent library and some good training equipment. SIPA is thus well equipped to mount training programmes in many sectors of development administration. The Institute has attempted to produce its own training material and has brought out some other publications as well.

(5) SIPA has now a permanent core faculty consisting of academic staff recruited from the universities. The professors, contributing to training in theoretical aspects of development administration, supplement training on the practical side which is provided by the administrators who come to the Institute on a tenure basis. Recent acquisition of this mix of administrative and academic skills has been a major factor in improving the quality of teaching in most programmes.

*Some Deficiencies:* The gains, enumerated above briefly, are very impressive indeed. But it would not do to gloss over the deficiencies. Some of them may be noted here as under:

(1) Looking at the total training scene in the State one gets an impression that, while training arrangements for the top and the middle level administrators are fairly satisfactory, training arrangements for the lower level administrators are somewhat inadequate. Effort that has gone into building up the SIPA facilities is not matched by similar concern for development of training facilities for supervisory staff lower down the hierarchy. Most of the other training institutions in the State lack even the basic requisite infrastructure.

(2) An adequate machinery to effectively coordinate the expanded training activity has not emerged yet. The Director, SIPA, is the Director of Training for the State, and in this capacity he is expected to plan and coordinate all training work. But in practice he is not able to do much in this regard mainly for the reason that he lacks the staff and other support. Most institutions, then, are unable to get the kind of support from their departments, which SIPA can obtain, thanks to the Institute's Training Advisory Committee. Of crucial importance to the functioning of the institutes is obviously the measure of support coming forth from the organizations which set them up in the first place.

(3) In the past years, SIPA devoted more of its time, energy and resources on in-service training programmes. This happened for the reason that direct recruitment to RAS was not done through

the RPSC for several years, and the Institute did not have much induction training job to do. Duration of the induction training for RAS probationers continues to be short—much less than that for the IAS Probationers. This is not a very satisfactory situation.

(4) Though SIPA had been established to train top and middle level personnel—and this should be a job to keep its hands absolutely full—there is a growing tendency to entrust to it training of lower level staff, and others for whom this Institute really was not designed. By not providing separate training facilities for the lower level personnel some saving certainly results, but it is perhaps not realized that such a policy will overstretch resources of SIPA, eventually reducing overall utility of its training of the higher services.

(5) Despite all the care that the Government has always taken in selecting persons to head training institutions and for the training jobs, persons unsuitable for such assignments have often got posted in training institutions. It is not always remembered that even the slightest departure from the established practice of selecting the right type of persons for the training jobs can lead to sudden decline in the capacity of training to create a direct impact on the job performance of the development administrators. Professors in the SIPA are not in the UGC scales for University Professors and their grievance, that in the matter of pay scale professors in the Government Colleges who have much less work to do are better placed, is understandable. A policy on trainers—their selection, placement, remuneration, training and further development—does not seem to have been given a concrete shape.

#### REMAINING ON THE FOREFRONT: THE TASK AHEAD

If training is to help produce the kind of environment in which development strategies to assist the poorer groups are seen as the most urgent governmental task, it is obvious that the planning of training will need to be done in a more imaginative manner. To optimize gains from the training effort it indeed will be necessary to plan things carefully, utilizing in the process lessons learnt from the past experience and focusing on the future, substantially different, role of the development administrators.

A major step to plan training on a scientific basis was taken in Rajasthan when a State Committee on Training was set up in 1974, and was asked to:



(1) review the activities and programmes in the training institutions in the State in the light of changing requirements of administration;

(2) recommend measures to ensure that the training needs of various services and organizations are met;

(3) recommend areas in which training institutions should develop and suggest faculty needs for meeting them;

(4) examine the possibility of organizational structure, co-ordinating and administering the training programmes of various training institutions; and

(5) recommend a Training Policy for the State of Rajasthan.<sup>6</sup>

The task before the Committee was rather huge. Therefore it took somewhat longer to complete its work. It was greatly assisted in its deliberations by the expert opinion as well as the views of almost all the Secretaries to the State Government. The Committee submitted the report in 1977.<sup>7</sup>

Taking stock of the existing situation and projecting the future training needs, the Committee in its report and recommendations succeeded in spelling out the directions which the training effort should take henceforward. Here it would be pertinent to give a condensed version of the major recommendations:

(1) Training could produce the desired results only if there was a policy in regard to training matters, and therefore the committee proceeded to enumerate the basic ingredients of a training policy. It was the view of this committee that among the components of a policy concerning training should be provision of training at all levels, necessary facilities for the purpose, linkage of training with career development, incentive to those who do well in training, determination of responsibility for training at various levels.

(2) The Committee was of the view that it would not do to just have a training policy document. There should be some administrative mechanism clothed with adequate power and authority to see that the policy was implemented. It stressed the importance of management support to training and, in this connection, observed: "There should be an evaluation of how the senior managers discharge their training responsibilities and good work done in this regard must find a mention in their performance appraisal reports."<sup>8</sup>

(3) SIPA should provide Foundational Training for all major State services personnel, Professional Training only for the RAS and In-service training for all top and middle level administrators.

Additionally, the Institute should be permitted to conduct some programmes for outside participants as well.

(4) To meet the Professional Training needs of other State services, three more institutions should be established as follows:

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<i>Institute</i>	<i>State Services/Department</i>
Rural Development Institute, Udaipur	Agriculture, Cooperation, Animal Husbandry, Social Welfare, Statistics, etc.
Engineering and Industry Training Institute, Kota	Industry, Labour, PWD, Irrigation, PHED, Mines and Geology, State Enterprises, etc.
Education Institute, Jaipur	College Education, Technical Education

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(5) All departments should be encouraged to make their own training arrangements for the training of Subordinate services staff. Where this is not practicable, they may do so jointly with other departments.

(6) By and large, institutional training facilities for Subordinate and Ministerial services are not well developed. Their training needs must now receive urgent attention, as it is largely their action and behaviour which make or mar the image of the Government.

(7) Training need not be concerned only with the teaching knowledge and skills needed for various jobs. Henceforth, more emphasis must be laid on the development of right attitudinal and behavioural patterns, so that the administrators came to see their new role of serving the poor in a proper perspective.

These indeed are well-thought-out recommendations which help chart out the future course of action in concrete terms. If these recommendations are implemented, training will get further strengthened for its principal task of shaping the administrators to deal with the challenges of development today as well as tomorrow. Urgency of the challenge and the tradition of top-level support to training from Rajasthan encourage the hope that nothing will deter the State Government from undertaking in all earnestness the task of seeing that training eventually begins to make a growing impact on the outcome of development effort.

## Notes and References

1. See the following: Irving Swerdlow and Marcus Ingle (eds) 1974. *Public Administration Training for the Less Developed Countries*. Syracuse: Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs; Inayatullah (ed.) 1975, *Management Training for Development: The Asian Experience*, Kuala Lumpur. The Asian Centre for Development Administration; Hari Mohan Mathur, 1979. "Training for Senior Administrators of Agricultural Development: Improving the Organization and Administration of Agricultural Development." Rome: FAO of the U.N.
2. Government of India, *Problems of State and District Administration*, New Delhi, Planning Commission, 1962: (A report by V.T. Krishnamachari).
3. Also see in this connection, Hari Mohan, Mathur *Training Administrators for Development in Rajasthan State*, India, Jaipur. The HCM State Institute of Public Administration, 1976. (Mimeo) (Paper prepared for Regional Programme for National Training Directors in Administration, Bangkok/November 1976, sponsored by the U.N. Asian Centre for Development Administration).
4. Published material on SIPA is also available. See in particular, the following by Hari Mohan Mathur:
  - (i) "Training of Senior Agricultural Experts and Administrators: The Case of Rajasthan, India," *Agricultural Administration* 4 (1977), pp. 30-35.
  - (ii) "Administrative Training and Rural Development: Recent Experiences in Rajasthan, India," *International Development Review* (Focus Section), 3 (1977): pp. 26-8.
5. For a discussion on what this support means to the training effort see, Hari Mohan Mathur, "Management Support to Training" in B.C. Mathur, et. al. (eds.) *Management in Government: Selected Readings*. (Delhi: Manager of Publications, Government of India, 1979).

6. The State Committee on Training was constituted under the Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms order No. F. 10 (14) O & M/Gr. V/74, dated August 9, 1974.
7. Government of Rajasthan, 1977. *State Committee on Training: Report and Recommendations*. Jaipur: The HCM State Institute of Public Administration (Mimeographed).
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# Performance Appraisal

Ram Singh

**T H E** new system of Performance Appraisal was introduced by the Government of Rajasthan from April 1975, replacing the traditional system of Annual Confidential Reports.

The proposal for the change from the traditional system emanated from a series of studies conducted by the Officers' Training School (now HCM State Institute of Public Administration) in workshops and seminars. The studies included systems of employee assessment in selected private and public sector organizations as also in Government organizations in the U.K., Japan and the U.S.A. Assistance of experts was also sought from the Ford Foundation in India. The proposal took a concrete shape in the recommendation of the Higher Management Seminar organized by the Institute in September 1969.

The State Government accepted the recommendation of the Seminar in principle and appointed a three-member Committee under the chairmanship of Mohan Mukherji to prepare a comprehensive proposal for the introduction of the system of Performance Appraisal. The Committee examined the recommendation of the Higher Management Seminar and also considered the recommendations on this subject made by the Rajasthan Administrative Reforms Committee (1963) and the Administrative Reforms Commission appointed by the Government of India (1966-70). It submitted its report to the Government in January 1971.

The report of this Committee was considered in the series of meetings of the Secretaries presided over by the Chief Secretary. The report came under a very close scrutiny which lasted over a period of about two years. The proposal was also considered in the meetings of the Joint Consultative Committee with representatives of organizations of Government servants. It was decided in the Secretaries' meeting that the Committee should review the report along with the suggestions that emerged in the extensive deliberations and consultation that took place when the report was considered in

the Secretaries' meeting. The Committee prepared its revised Report in January 1972, which was finally considered in the Secretaries' meeting and was accepted. In the process of extensive deliberations and scrutiny the original proposal got substantially refined and improved.

The revised Report embodied the final recommendations on the introduction of the new system of Performance Appraisal. The proposal was submitted to the Cabinet in March 1973.

The proposal remained under consideration in the Council of Ministers for over a period of two years and detailed discussions took place there also. On a number of occasions the Members of the Committee were called for questioning before the Council of Ministers. The Council of Ministers finally approved the proposal in July 1975.

It appears rather unique that the proposal for change and reform in the system of assessment took so much time and was subjected to so much scrutiny and consideration. It reflects how important this measure was. But for the consensus, that developed over long and extensive deliberations at all levels of administration, including the political level, the proposal would not have been finally accepted. It is indicative of the determination and the vision which the higher bureaucracy evinced for reform in such a vital area. It is also a tribute to the political leadership that accepted the proposal for a major change in the administrative process. On one side the need was felt that the traditional system required a drastic change, and, on the other, there was apprehension that the new system may not subserve the interest of the "administration". It also appears that in the perpetuation of the traditional system administrative supervisors had developed a stake and interest as they enjoyed immense power and authority. At the political level also the traditional system provided all-pervasive influence and authority. The proposal put the decision-makers in a great dilemma. The new system diluted authority but expanded the horizon of administrative supervision and conferred on the administrative supervisors a new responsibility to develop and train their junior colleagues. When the Cabinet put the seal of their approval on the proposal the decision was hailed as an epoch-making event and was, indeed, a landmark in the process of administrative reforms in the State.

Many factors contributed to the urgency of the need for change in the traditional system. The traditional system had a very limited and narrow angle. It provided a system of control in administrative

hierarchy at all levels. The record that was maintained was simple and was generally utilized for promotion and compulsory retirement.

It was, however, felt that in the wake of greater emphasis on development and welfare in the administration, the functions of personnel at various levels had changed and there was new focus on the dimension of their responsibility. The forms used for Annual Confidential Reports were not at all adequate. A common form was used for various categories of jobs. The factors of assessment under the traditional system did not help to measure merit, let alone performance. As there was no precise definition of the terms used, these were differently interpreted by various Reporting/Reviewing Officers and there was vagueness in the scale of rating. What exactly was meant by "Outstanding", "Very Good", "Good", "Satisfactory" and "Poor" differed from person to person. The system failed to bring out a clear assessment of the personality of the Officer reported upon and provided little information on the scope of his further growth.

Under the traditional system all supervisory officers above the Reporting Officer had responsibility to comment on the assessment of the officer. In some cases one officer had to deal with hundreds of reports. This led to routine and hurried disposal of an important task of evaluation. In the process serious inconsistencies were observed. The studies revealed that quite often there was divergence in the assessment of Reporting and Reviewing Officer and Officers at higher levels. The observations such as "Seen", "Counter-signed", "No comments" were passed as a matter of routine rather than objective considerations. The instrument became coercive and served as a tool of control in the hands of not only immediate Supervisors but Supervisors at all levels.

Indiscriminate use of coercive power in recording adverse remarks led to controversies, allegations of partiality and persistent efforts for expunctions of adverse remarks. The studies revealed that the instrument of assessment was sometimes used to thwart the promotions on "Merit" by a device of recording such observations as "just average", "there is scope for improvement", etc., etc. These remarks looked innocent and were not communicated but had disastrous effect on prospect of promotion when the merit system of promotion was introduced. The Reported Officer came to know of this only when he was superseded by a less meritorious person. A trend was also noticed which indicated "rating" in the most superlative terms.

Some officials contrived to stay on positions which could earn "Good" or "Outstanding" chits. Officials working in the field found themselves at a disadvantage as compared to officers who held Secretariat or Office jobs. Field duties involved risks and success of the official depended on factors which were not under his control. The Departmental Promotion Committee felt greatly handicapped in judging "Merit" on the basis of record as revealed in these annual confidential reports.

Generally, adverse remarks were not communicated in time. Sometimes, years lapsed. When the officials realized that adverse entries could mar their career prospects, all conceivable attempts were made to get these expunged. It became possible to manage expunction of adverse remarks. In the representations counter-allegations of *mala fide* were made against reporting officers. A stage was reached when reporting officers felt reluctant to give their objective assessment, particularly when it was felt that such assessment was adverse for fear of counter-allegations through representations. The introduction of the system of merit promotions accelerated this process and it appeared that employees at all levels lost faith in the system. Employees Associations even demanded that the system of maintaining annual confidential reports be scrapped. It is under this background that a new system was conceived and introduced. A brief account of the background given above will indicate how important and significant was the impact of the new measures.

The salient features of the new measure are:

(1) The nomenclature—Annual Confidential Reports—was changed to "Annual Performance Appraisal". The term confidential report gives a negative connotation. It is not the element of confidentiality but that of performance assessment which is important and needed to be emphasized.

(2) The new system emphasized job performance as against personality traits. The prime task for the administration is rapid, social and economic development and maintenance of order. It is necessary that all employees in Government function in a state of efficiency. The new system provides for determination of norms wherever feasible and gives an opportunity to the employee for self-appraisal. Thus, an inbuilt device is introduced which would encourage initiative and instil confidence. The officers at the supervisory level will have to be vigilant. They would be required to fix means for each functionary and measure achievements against the prescribed norms.



(3) There is a basic change in the objective of performance appraisal. It is an important responsibility of the supervisory officers to see that the employee develops and grows within the administrative system and is able to put forward his best. This can be best assured through a properly structured system of performance appraisal. The entire focus of the system is to develop the employee, to remove his deficiency and enable him to contribute his best for the growth of organization. Under the old system the approach was negative and too much coercive control led to indifference, stagnation and alienation. The new system introduced a fundamental change in the traditional concept of senior-subordinate relationship. This relationship is no more viewed as a perpetual confrontation but a constructive partnership for the sole purpose of achieving the goals of welfare society. This is the basic purpose of Administration.

(4) To achieve the objectives stated above new forms for performance evaluation were evolved. The forms have been so devised that Reporting and Reviewing Officers are able to make objective and meaningful assessment of the employee. It has been ensured that the information contained in the form is as pertinent as possible to behaviour relating to particular job and extraneous considerations do not enter into the process of assessment. Evaluative terms have been precisely defined and standardized definitions have been provided for the guidance of the evaluating officers. The common definitions not only add meaning to the content of the report but enhance objectivity. Based on the criteria discussed above, it was considered necessary that separate forms should be provided for different types of jobs. Under the traditional system, two forms, one for the officers of the State and Subordinate Services and the other for the Ministerial Services, were prescribed. It was discovered that these forms were extremely inadequate in view of the various kinds of jobs involving specific nature of duties and functions of respective departments in the Government. The new scheme provides grouping of employees in eight broad categories and for each category a separate form has been prescribed. Some of the evaluative terms in each appraisal form are common but there are factors which are exclusive to a particular service depending on special nature, duties and functions of the employees in a particular group. The eight broad categories referred to above are: (a) Top executive level; (b) Senior executive level; (c) Junior executive level; (d) Section Officers and Superintendents; (e) Assistants, U.D.C.s and L.D.C.s; (f) Stenographers

and P.A.s; (g) For other Officials—Lower Technical Staff; (h) For other Officials—Lower Staff.

For each category factors of assessment are different. The entire focus is on job requirements and qualities that are sought to be evaluated are identifiable and relevant. As an illustration forms evolved for Senior Executive Level, Assistants and Stenographers and P.A.s are appended (Appendix "A", "B", and "C").

(5) Each form is generally divided into five parts. Part I is to be filled in by the officer reported upon. It contains information regarding the officer and the assignment he holds. It also contains information regarding the norms and targets prescribed by the department for him and his statement of achievements in terms of these norms. The Reporting Officer is required to make specific comments on the information regarding the achievements or norms as indicated by the officer reported upon. This part is common to all categories of employees and an important features of this part is that it contains information on the norms fixed and achieved. The employee has the opportunity to furnish this information himself. It gives him an opportunity for self-appraisal and protects him from subjective evaluation his superiors might attempt. In a governmental organization this is indeed a unique innovation and has profound significance in the area of growth and development of employees, their relationship to the organization and their involvement in the achievements of norms and objectives. Part II deals with personality where factors such as intelligence, drive and leadership, initiative and creativity, capacity to handle people, judgment and temperament are evaluated. Part III deals with performance which relates to job knowledge, output, organization and control of work, quality and dependability, cost consciousness, ability to communicate, etc. In Part IV the Reviewing Officer is required to evaluate the assessment made by the Reporting Officer. He gives his opinion about the fitness for promotion and on special merit of the candidate. Part V is reserved for remarks by officers other than Reporting and Reviewing Officer.

(6) Definition of factors of assessment and scales of assessments have been provided (Appendix "D"). The experience had shown that words and terms used in the conventional forms were differently interpreted by different persons making it extremely difficult to arrive at a correct decision based on the comparative assessment of reports. It was discovered that the Reporting Officers had not ade-

quately grasped the precise meaning of terms like Patience, Tact, Courtesy, Personal Character, Constitution, Physical Energy, Mental Alertness, Initiative and Drive, etc., used in the conventional form. The introduction of standard definitions ensures uniformity about the precise intent and meaning of factors and scales.

(7) Instead of five scales of assessment, namely, "Outstanding", "Very Good", "Good", "Satisfactory" and "Poor", the new system provides for only four scales of assessment, namely, "Outstanding", "Above Average", "Average" and "Below Average". In the new proforma the officer is assessed on the four-point scale in a descending order from "Outstanding" to "Below Average". The reduction of number of scales to four makes the grading more meaningful while fine distinction involved in the five-scale gradation was in fact incapable of being identified and applied. The forms provide for a system of check marking (in the appropriate boxes). This reduced the incidence of non-reporting or indiscriminate reporting.

(8) The new system provides for only two levels of assessment, *i.e.*, Reporting and Reviewing Officers. The Reporting Officer is the immediate supervisor under whom the officer is working. The next higher Officer in the hierarchy is the Reviewing Officer. Ordinarily no third person would make any observation on the Annual Performance Appraisal. This was one of the major departures from the old practice. Under the old practice officers all along the hierarchy used to make comments. At higher levels reports were being signed just mechanically. Studies revealed that sometimes remarks had been given at a higher level which were not warranted and ultimately had to be expunged. One of the reasons for delay in accepting the new proposal was the reluctance at the senior level to accept the change. It was felt that officers beyond the reviewing level will lose the authority which the traditional system conferred on them. The new system provides that higher officers when not being Reporting or Reviewing Officers could peruse the Annual Performance Appraisal for informational purposes only and will give their observations only if they are in the know of facts and when they feel that they should make their comments on the functioning of the officer. This was indeed a significant change and conducted to a great reform.

(9) The system involves a major change in the procedure for recording and conveying adverse remarks. The Reporting Officer has continuous responsibility to guide the Subordinate Officer and

point out to him shortcomings and the deficiencies in the performance of his duties. The adverse remarks should go in the Annual Performance Appraisal only when the reported officer persistently fails to show improvement. Observations requiring improvement and job performance and indicating need for training would not constitute adverse remark. The system provides that adverse entries would be communicated by the Reviewing officer to the officer reported upon along with the substance of the favourable remarks. It was laid down that entries made in the "below average column" and lack of integrity will constitute adverse remarks.

(10) Under the conventional system, the communication of adverse entries was greatly delayed. This led to delay in making representations and there was great dissatisfaction among the employees over the system of disposal of adverse entries. Delay occurred and several years passed before decisions were taken on the representation against adverse entries. It was discovered that there was no finality to decisions and very often old cases were opened. This had shaken the confidence of employees. The Committee, therefore, recommended a quick procedure for the communication of adverse entries and disposal of representations. To ensure objective and unbiased decision Appeal Committees are provided to deal with representations at various levels. In these Committees Reporting and Reviewing Officers do not participate. It was laid down that the Appeal Committee will function as a last resort of appeal and its decision would be final.

(11) The Government officials are often criticized for their proclivity to lavishness in public expenditure. The criticism is justified as would be evident from the findings of the Public Accounts Committees. The other charge is that they are not responsive to the public weal and are indifferent to sufferings of the weaker sections of society. The new Performance Appraisal system provides assessment of officials on both the counts. This is a unique innovation in the system of rating of public officials. Every official charged with executive responsibility is annually assessed for his "cost consciousness" and his "attitude towards weaker sections of society." There can be no better instrument to educate and induce public officials towards these goals in a society dedicated to welfare and democratic ideals than the system which provides a regular assessment on these two items of profound public importance.

(12) The system provides for a record of the training needs in

the Performance Appraisal. It was envisaged that the training programme in the Institute and training by the Heads of Department will take into consideration the needs as emerged out of the annual assessment. The Committee suggested that all Reviewing Officers shall communicate to the Director of Training observations made in the various confidential reports regarding improvement and training needs of the officers reported upon. The Director, Training, shall frame training programmes keeping in view the information received by him from Reviewing Officers. This process was to make the training realistic and purposeful. This is a difficult process and would call for sustained work and vigilance. It is not known how far information gathered under the new system has been utilized for the purpose of training.

(13) The task of evaluation of personnel in an organization is an important element in the system of Personnel Management. It is an essential quality of leadership which every supervisor should possess. In a Government organization, where responsibilities are dispersed, there is always a tendency on the part of senior officials to relapse to routine and maintain *status quo*. This is the reason why Government organizations are found less efficient as compared to private organizations. The Performance Appraisal System, therefore, assumes a special significance in the Personnel Management system in Government. Every supervisor should be skilled in this area and should have capacity and understanding of the role he is required to play. Efficiency in administration can be brought only if systems and personnel improve. Performance Appraisal falls within the ambit of systems' improvement. It has an inbuilt mechanism to improve personnel. It is, therefore, the most vital area of administrative process. The Committee, therefore, suggested that in the Institute of Public Administration and other Institutes obtaining in the State, Performance Appraisal should form an integral part of the training.

(14) To ensure that Annual Performance Appraisal reports are drawn in time, a time schedule has been prepared as indicated in Appendix 'E'.

The system of Performance Appraisal was introduced by the State Government in 1975. It is nearly six years that the system is in vogue. It is appropriate that the system is under review. Review of administrative process should be a permanent feature of administration if it is to cope with the requirements of modern times. No

system is perfect and on the basis of experience correctives should be applied. There should be a constant effort towards improvement and further refinement. The system as in vogue today was evolved after a good deal of consideration and debate. It has some basic features which should be preserved. These are:

- (a) Factors of evaluation should match job requirements.
- (b) Definition of factors and scales of grading.
- (c) Determination of norms and their achievements in the system of appraisal.
- (d) Opportunity of self-appraisal.
- (e) Separate forms for different categories of posts.
- (f) Limiting evaluation to two levels of supervisory level.
- (g) System of recording, conveying and disposal of adverse remarks.
- (h) Constitution of Appeal Committees.

It should be clearly understood that Performance Appraisal system can be used as the best tool for the employee development.

All administrative systems are rigid. The Indian Administrative Service and its processes are comparatively more rigid. Even a slight change in administrative process is difficult and is painful. The Government of Rajasthan, therefore, can take legitimate pride in bringing about a significant reform in a vital area of evaluation of employees. The system is innovative and contains in it a potential mechanism for continuous reform in the administrative process.

## APPENDIX A

## Form 'P' A-2

(To be used for Senior Executives in the pay scales Nos. 18-31)

GOVERNMENT OF RAJASTHAN  
ANNUAL PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Year— — —

## PART I

(To be filled by the Officer reported upon)

1. Name
2. Father's/Husband's name
3. Service
4. Designation
5. Date of birth
6. Date of joining
  - (a) Government service
  - (b) Present position
7. Position held during the year  
Department      Position      Period
8. Present Pay and Scale
9. Permanent/Officiating
10. Educational Degree/Diploma received during the year under review.
11. Training received during the year.
12. Appraisal of his performance in terms of the norms/targets prescribed by the Department (Add extra sheet, if necessary).

Norms prescribed	Achievements
------------------	--------------
13. Date of submission  

Signature
14. Comments of the Reporting Officer on item No. 12.  
Date      Signature of the Reporting Officer

## PART II

## Personality :

1. Intelligence
2. Drive and leadership
3. Initiative and creativity
4. Capacity to handle people

5. Judgment
6. Temperament

*Performance :*

1. Job knowledge
2. Output
3. Organization and control of work
4. Quality and dependability of work
5. Cost consciousness
6. Ability to communicate  
(a) orally                      (b) in writing
7. Relations with citizens and their representatives.

*PART III*

1. Do you know of any physical disability or health problem which prevents the officer from working to full capacity?

Yes ( )

No ( )

(If yes, please explain the nature of this problem).

2. Any reprimand or disciplinary action taken against the officer during the year under review.

3. Give a brief account of the efforts made to improve the working of the officer in cases where his performance is considered below average (Add extra sheet, if necessary).

4. Do you feel he would work more effectively on another type of posting?

Yes ( )

(No)

(If yes, please indicate the type of posting.)

5. Measures for improvement and training needed:

Keeping in view his age, abilities, knowledge, experience and aptitude, please recommend the training and development required.

6. Attitude towards the weaker sections of society and performance in this regard. Mention details and figures.

7. Overall assessment

These comments should indicate the way in which the officer has carried out his various duties during the year giving a summary of his personality, character and abilities. Particular mention should be made of instances of outstanding work, if any, meriting special commendation, also of instances of particularly poor or indifferent work during the year, giving particulars. (Add extra sheet, if necessary.)



## 8. Assessment of integrity:

Has anything come to your knowledge which reflects adversely on the Officer's integrity or his ability to honestly do his duties.

Yes ( ) No ( )

(If yes, please explain details.)

Date of Submission to  
the Reviewing Officer

Signature of the Reporting  
Officer

## PART IV

(Remarks of the Reviewing Officer/Authority)

1. Length of service under him.
2. General remarks on the assessment made by the reporting officer, with specific reference to his remarks on the outstanding work done by the officer.
3. (a) Fitness for promotion in his turn:
  - (i) Fit for promotion
  - (ii) Not yet fit for promotion
- (b) Has the officer any special characteristics and/or any outstanding merit or abilities which would justify his advancement and special selection for higher appointment out of turn?
 

Yes ( ) No ( )

(If yes, please give details.)

Date

Signature of Reviewing Officer

## PART V

Remarks by Officers other than Reporting and Reviewing.

Date

Signature

## APPENDIX B

## Form 'P' B-2

(To be used for Assistants/UDCs/LDCs etc., Scales 7, 9, 10, 12 and 14)

GOVERNMENT OF RAJASTHAN  
ANNUAL PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Year———

## PART I

(To be filled by the Official reported upon)

1. Name
2. Father's/Husband's name

3. Service
4. Designation
5. Date of birth
6. Date of joining
  - (a) Government service
  - (b) Present position
7. Position held during the year
 

Department	Designation	Period
------------	-------------	--------
8. Present pay and scale
9. Permanent/Officiating
10. Educational Degree/Diploma received during the year under review
11. Training received during the year
12. Appraisal of his performance, in terms of the norms/targets prescribed by the Department (Add extra sheet, if necessary.)
 

Norms prescribed	Achievements
------------------	--------------
13. Date of submission
 

Signature
14. Comments of the Reporting Officer on item No. 12.
 

Date

Signature of the Reporting Officer

## PART II

### *Personality :*

1. Intelligence
2. Discipline
3. Dependability
4. Temperament

### *Performance :*

1. Job knowledge
2. Maintenance of records
3. Noting, drafting and correspondence
4.
  - (a) Proficiency in typing
  - (b) Handling of stores
  - (c) Handling of cash
  - (d) Accounts
  - (e) Establishment

## PART III

1. Do you know of any physical disability or health problem which prevents the official from working to full capacity?

Yes (    )                      No (    )

(If yes, please explain the nature of this problem.)

2. Any reprimand or disciplinary action taken against the official during the year under review.

3. Give a brief account of the efforts made to improve the working of the official in cases where his performance is considered below average (Add extra sheet, if necessary.)

4. Do you feel he would work more effectively on another place?

Yes (    )                      No (    )

(If yes, please indicate the place/posting.)

5. Suggest specific training programmes which might improve his competence.

6. Overall assessment:

Indicate the manner in which the official has carried out his duties. Particular mention be made of any outstanding or indifferent work done by him during the year. (Add extra sheet, if necessary.)

7. Assessment of integrity:

Has anything come to your knowledge which reflects adversely on the official's integrity or his ability to honestly execute his duties?

Yes (    )                      No (    )

(If yes, please give details.)

Date of Submission to  
the Reviewing Officer

Signature of the Reporting  
Officer

#### PART IV

*(Remarks of the Reviewing Officer/Authority)*

1. Length of service under him.

2. Do you agree with the assessment made by the Reporting Officer?

Yes (    )                      No (    )

(Anything you wish to modify or add, please indicate.)

3. (a) Fitness for promotion in his turn:

(i) Fit for promotion

(ii) Not yet fit for promotion

(b) Has the official any special characteristics and/or any outstanding merit or abilities which would justify his advancement and special selection for higher appointment out of turn?

Yes (     )                      No (     )

(If yes, please give details.)

Date

Signature of the Reviewing Officer

## PART V

*(Remarks by Officers other than Reporting and Reviewing)*

## APPENDIX C

## Form 'P' B-3

*(To be used for Stenographers and P.A.s—Scales 11, 12, 13 and 15)*GOVERNMENT OF RAJASTHAN  
ANNUAL PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Year———

## PART I

*(To be filled in by the Official reported upon)*

1. Name
2. Father's/Husband's name
3. Service
4. Designation
5. Date of birth
6. Date of joining:
  - (a) Government service
  - (b) Present position
7. Position held during the year  

Department	Designation	Period
------------	-------------	--------
8. Present pay and scale
9. Permanent/Officiating
10. Educational Degree/Diploma received during the year under review.
11. Training received during the year
12. Statement showing his performance in terms of the norms/targets prescribed by the Department (Add extra sheet, if necessary.)
 

Norms prescribed	Achievements
------------------	--------------
13. Date of submission
- Signature
14. Comments of the Reporting Officer on item No. 12

Date

Signature of the Reporting Officer

## PART II

### Personality :

1. Intelligence
2. Temperament
3. Discipline
4. Trustworthiness

### Performance:

1. Noting, drafting and correspondence
2. Proficiency in Stenography
3. Fixing engagements, tour programmes, etc.
4. Handling visitors and phones
5. Ability to look into details

## PART III

1. Do you know of any physical disability or health problem which prevents the official from working to full capacity?

Yes (     )                      No (     )

(If yes, please explain the nature of this problem.)

2. Any reprimand or disciplinary action taken against the official during the year under review.

3. Give a brief account of the efforts made to improve the working of the official in cases where his performance is considered below average. (Add extra sheet, if necessary.)

4. Suggest specific training development programmes of the official.

5. Overall assessment:

Indicate the manner in which the official has carried out his duties. Particular mention be made of any outstanding/indifferent work done by him during the year.

6. Assessment of integrity:

Has anything come to your knowledge which reflects adversely on this official's integrity or his ability to honestly execute his duties?

Yes (     )                      No (     )

(If yes, please give details.)

Date of Submission to  
the Reviewing Officer

Signature of the Reporting  
Officer

**PART IV**

*(Remarks of the Reviewing Officer/Authority)*

1. Length of service under him
2. (a) Fitness for promotion in his turn:
  - (i) Fit for promotion
  - (ii) Not yet fit for promotion
- (b) Has the official any special characteristic and/or any outstanding merit or abilities which would justify his advancement and special selection for higher appointment out of turn?

Yes (     )                      No (     )

(If yes, please give details.)

Date

Signature of the Reviewing Officer

**PART V**

*(Remarks by Officers other than Reporting and Reviewing)*

Date

Signature

## APPENDIX D

DEFINITIONS  
PERSONALITY:

Sl No.	Factors	Outstanding	Above Average	Average	Below average
1	2	3	4	5	6
<b>1. INTELLIGENCE:</b>					
	Ability to understand and handle new and difficult matters.	Exceptionally proficient in understanding new and complex matters and finding solution of difficult problems promptly.	Able to handle new and difficult matters.	Takes some time and requires help in fully grasping new and difficult situations.	Poor comprehension of problems and performs poorly even if proper instructions are given.
<b>2. DRIVE AND LEADERSHIP:</b>					
	Desire and ability to achieve and get things accomplished. Tenacious, not easily discouraged, gives direction and push to the organization.	Inspiring, forceful and tenacious leader, has rare ability to overcome obstacles and invariably can produce widespread support in his organization for his policies and decisions	Influences staff positively by his leadership qualities and generally persists with problems until solution is reached.	Works well in normal circumstances. Has a desire to achieve results but is sometimes put off by obstacles.	Lacks sufficient force and drive to influence others. Has limited desire to achieve results.
<b>3. INITIATIVE AND CREATIVITY:</b>					
	Ability to approach problems with an enquiring mind with vision and imagination. Looks for new ideas, new tasks and responsibilities.	Exceptionally sourceful and creative. Has keen ability to project needs of the organization and takes steps to prepare organization for future growth and development.	Resourceful in giving suggestions, frequently offers original ideas and sees present problems in the context of future.	Performs task in the set, traditional manner, accepts new ideas ultimately.	Cannot perform unless guided closely, lacks originality and does not take initiative.

6

5

4

3

2

1

**4. CAPACITY TO HANDLE PEOPLE:**

Ability to size up people, inspire loyalty, gets things done, obtains cooperation and develops people under him.

Exceptional ability to deal with subordinates and superiors, devotes considerable attention to developing staff.

Helps members of the organization realize their potential and facilitate their active involvement in the organization.

Very competent in dealing with subordinates, devotes time to developing staff.

Maintains satisfactory relations with staff. Cannot handle sensitive personal problems well and has no special interest in developing staff.

Handles people badly, creates friction and lacks capacity to guide, direct and motivate staff.

**5. JUDGMENT:**

Ability to think correctly about persons and problems. Analyses all facts and the pros and cons before coming to a decision. Differentiates between important and unimportant.

Thinks quickly and logically, immediately gets to roots of the problems, comes forth with sound decisions which can be readily implemented. A very good judge of men and matters.

Makes reasonable decisions on normal problems, handles routine matters satisfactorily

Often misses the point, judgment is unreliable, cannot deal with problems which are complex and often falters even with routine problems.

**6. TEMPERAMENT:**

Self-control, poise, ability to stand stresses and strain.

Describe the temperaments:

Whether he is calm, has self-control and can stand stresses and strain with equanimity?

No ( )

Whether he is patient and tolerant of differences of opinion and temperaments?

No ( )

Whether he is short-tempered?

Yes ( )

No ( )

Whether he is frustrated and cynical?

Yes ( )

No ( )



## 7. DISCIPLINE:

Sense of punctuality and adherence to rules of conduct.

Always punctual in all matters, exemplary conduct, always ready to take responsibility.

Punctual, strictly observes the code of conduct.

Not punctual. Ignores the general code of conduct, shirks responsibility.

## 8. DEPENDABILITY:

Conscientiousness towards duty.

Very conscientious, dedicated to his work, needs no supervision.

Conscientious and steady worker.

Often fails to perform his duty.

## 9. TRUSTWORTHINESS:

Sense of responsibility to his superiors and ability to handle confidential matters.

Enjoys confidence of his senior officers. Highly responsible with respect to confidential matters. trusted.

Usually loyal, can be relied upon for handling confidential matters.

Needs to cultivate a better sense of loyalty. Cannot handle confidential matters. At times betrays confidence.

## PERFORMANCE

### 1. JOB KNOWLEDGE :

Technical and General Knowledge about the job he is doing.

Possesses superior knowledge of all aspects of his work, has sound grasp of other areas related to his work, strives to expand his knowledge about his work and profession.

Has been well trained and has thorough job knowledge. Is receptive to learning more about his job and profession.

Has adequate knowledge of the job for the present requirements of the job, generally not eager to expand his job knowledge.

Lacks satisfactory knowledge of the job requirements, lacks will to learn further.

### 2. OUTPUT:

Consider achievement of targets and norms fixed.

Productivity outstanding, exceeds targets, highly performance-oriented.

Accomplishes a great deal of work and meets targets and expectations.

Output is satisfactory, usually meets targets if serious obstacles do not intervene.

Rarely meets targets, lacks consciousness about performance resulting in inadequate output.

6

5

4

3

2

1

### 3. ORGANIZATION AND CONTROL OF WORK:

Ability to plan, organize and supervise work.

Successful efficient supervisor, runs organization smoothly, successfully delegates work while maintaining adequate control.

Efficient supervisor, generally delegates work and maintains control.

Moderate, ability to organize and control work, occasionally reluctant to delegate for fear of losing control.

Lacks control over staff, cannot organize work.

### 4. QUALITY AND DEPENDABILITY OF WORK:

Consider standard of performance and reliability of his work, always dependable, far exceeds others in quality of work he produces.

Always dependable. Work is of high quality and accuracy.

Usually dependable, work is generally accurate, although sometimes quality of work is uneven.

Work is carelessly done, not accurate and often must be either redone or re-assigned.

### 5. COST CONSCIOUSNESS:

Assessment of efforts made in controlling cost of major items and timely action taken to effect economies wherever necessary.

Successful in achieving economy in most spheres. Always conscious about economy.

Can achieve modest economies although makes no special efforts in this regard. Avoids being wasteful with expenditure.

Wasteful and generally indifferent to expenditure and costs.

### 6. ABILITY TO COMMUNICATE:

Capacity for conveying ideas in a clear, logical and convincing manner.

Has good command of oral and written communication and usually expresses ideas precisely and logically.

Has moderate ability in communicating ideas, sometimes must re-explain or re-state his ideas in order to make them understood.

Lacks ability to convey ideas clearly and logically, often expresses himself in a confusing manner.

# 7. RELATIONS WITH CITIZENS AND THEIR REPRESENTATIVES :

<p>Ability to deal with public and their representatives in an impartial manner</p>	<p>Highly responsive, courteous and just in dealing with citizens and their representatives, well respected for his public relations, has rare ability to reconcile aggrieved persons.</p>	<p>Handles citizens and their representatives fairly and courteously. Is interested in seeing that fairness is observed.</p>	<p>Is rude and arrogant in dealing with citizens and their representatives. Has no special concern or interest in their welfare.</p>
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# 8. NOTING, DRAFTING AND CORRESPONDENCE :

<p>Ability to prepare notes, make drafts and handle correspondence.</p>	<p>Very precise in noting, drafting, very prompt and accurate at correspondence. His drafts need no editing.</p>	<p>Noting and drafting satisfactorily, handles correspondence well.</p>	<p>Casual at noting and drafting. Careless in handling correspondence</p>
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# 9. MAINTENANCE OF RECORDS:

<p>Ability to maintain clean and proper records.</p>	<p>Very neat and meticulous in maintaining his records.</p>	<p>Maintains records in a routine manner.</p>	<p>Does not maintain records properly.</p>
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# 10. PROFICIENCY IN TYPING:

<p>Ability to type.</p>	<p>Prompt in typing. Commits no mistakes.</p>	<p>Clean and prompt in typing.</p>	<p>Generally good in typing. Typing has many mistakes.</p>
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# 11. HANDLING OF STORES :

<p>Ability to manage the stores</p>	<p>Acquires the stores well in time with proper specification and strict adherence to rules. Maintains proper inventory, stores and issues them carefully and promptly. Realizes individual needs.</p>	<p>Acquires stores in time and issues the stores as per rules and looks to the convenience of the staff. Maintains proper inventory, stores them properly.</p>	<p>Commits irregularities. Slow in acquiring and storing. The inventory is not maintained properly. Some articles usually get damaged, staff is not happy with his work.</p>
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**12. (a) HOLDING OF CASH:**

Ability to handle cash and keep records.

Meticulous in maintaining a clean and up-to-date cash book and issuing of receipts. Adheres to rules, yet has an ability to keep everybody pleased.

Keeps a clean and up-to-date cash book. Issues receipts in time. Adheres to rules, yet is able to keep people satisfied.

Tries to keep cash books up-to-date and adheres to rules, not bothered about others. annoys people.

**(b) ACCOUNTS:**

Ability to maintain accounts and maintain the records.

Meticulous in following rules and procedures and maintaining the record. Keeps people happy. Keeps a vigilant eye to the resources and objectives of the organization.

Strictly follows the rules and regulations. Tries to understand others' point of view. Keeps the records up-to-date.

Tries to adhere to rules and regulations. Generally cares more for the letter rather than the spirit of the rules. Tries to keep records up-to-date.

**(c) ESTABLISHMENT:**

Ability to deal with establishment matters and keep records.

Expert in establishment matters. Keeps records up-to-date. Very prompt at handling cases.

Well acquainted with establishment matters. Keeps records up-to-date. Usually quick at handling cases.

Tries to understand establishment matters and keeps records up-to-date. Handles cases in a routine manner.

Does not understand establishment matters and poor at keeping records and handling cases.

**13. PROFICIENCY IN STENOGRAPHY:**

Ability to take dictation and type it out.

Very quick and accurate in taking dictation, very clean and prompt in typing. Commits no mistakes.

Accurate in taking dictation. Clean and prompt in typing.

Generally accurate in taking dictation and good in typing.

Inaccurate and slow in taking down dictation. Typing has many mistakes.

14. **FIXING ENGAGEMENTS, TOUR PROGRAMMES, ETC.:**

Providing assistance to his officer in arranging his tour and engagements.

Very adept at fixing engagements and attending during tours. Very conscientious about the effective utilization of his superiors' time.

Careful at fixing engagements and attending during tours. Usually helps his officer in utilizing his time.

Accompanies on tours and fixes up engagements and tours as a matter of routine. Occasionally lacks knowledge about details.

Mismanages the engagements, schedules and fails in his duties while on tour.

15. **HANDLING VISITORS AND PHONES:**

Ability to handle visitors and telephones.

Very adept at handling visitors. Extremely polite yet specific on the telephone. Presents a very good image of the organization.

Handles visitors and the telephone well, puts up a good image of the organization.

Handles the visitors and telephones in a routine satisfactory manner.

Clumsy in dealing with the visitors and telephones. Gives a very poor impression.

16. **ABILITY TO LOOK INTO DETAILS:**

Providing assistance to his officer by looking into minor details.

Very meticulous about minor details. Has a very high standard in doing all tasks. A real asset to the officer.

Careful about minor details. Does all the jobs well. Great help to his officer.

Pays attention to details and does his job well.

Forgetful. Usually misses details. At times puts his officer in an inconvenient situation.

## APPENDIX E

### Time Schedule for the Various Stages of Performance Appraisal

S. No.	Operation/Activity	Last date by which the task has to be completed
1.	Submission of the 'P' form by the Government servant concerned.	April 10
2.	Writing of Performance Appraisal Report by the Reporting Officer.	May 10
3.	Submission of the Performance Appraisal by the Reporting Officer to the Reviewing Officer.	May 15
4.	Comments on the report by the Reviewing Officer and sending the Annual Performance Appraisal to the Office of Record (i) in case where no adverse entries have been made and (ii), if made, then they have been expunged by the reviewing officer.	June 15
5.	In case where the reviewing officer has not <i>suo moto</i> expunged the adverse entries, they are to be intimated to the officer reported upon by the Reviewing Officer.	June 15
6.	Representation against the adverse entries by the Government servant reported upon.	June 30
7.	Decision by the Reviewing Officer on the adverse entries, after obtaining the comments of the Reporting Officer.	July 31
8.	Reviewing Officer forwarding the performance appraisal to the Office of Record if he has expunged them; and intimation to the officer concerned.	August 5
9.	In case the Reviewing Officer has decided not to expunge the adverse entries, intimation to be given by him to the officer reported upon to make a further representation (if he desires) to Special Secretary Personnel/Head of the Department through him.	August 5

10. Submission of the representation by the Government servant reported upon, against the adverse entries, to the Appeal Committee through the Reviewing Officer. August 25
11. Forwarding of the entire record with his comments by the Reviewing Officer/Authority to Special Secretary Personnel/Head of the Department. August 30
12. Final decision by the Appeal Committee and communication of this decision to all concerned. September 30

## 20

# Rajasthan Civil Services Appellate Tribunal

R. M. Khinvensara

TRIBUNALS are mainly a twentieth century phenomenon. The form of the tribunals which we have witnessed in the 20th Century and which has come to acquire significant and important role in the administration of a welfare State could have their history traced in the United Kingdom with the introduction of the Old Age Pension Act, 1908, and the National Insurance Act, 1911. Then came into being the Tribunal to decide the Health Insurance Claims and Workmen's Compensation Act. So far as the British pattern is concerned there was a rapid growth of quasi-judicial tribunals.

In France "Conseil d'Etat" exercises very wide jurisdiction. Similar is the position of "Oberver-waltungsgericht" in Germany.

In many East European countries remedy against administrative wrong is normally obtainable only within the administrative hierarchy itself. However in other countries, where the concept of rule of law prevails, the legal system demarcates relationship between the governor and the governed and the area of administrative activities in which claims and controversies are resolved.

The famous Frank Committee (the recommendations of which came to be incorporated in the Tribunals and Enquiries Act, 1958) made a number of detailed recommendations for improvement of the working of tribunals in Britain. The tribunals have not been forced into a strait-jacket of uniformity, but their essentially adjudicatory role has been emphasized by new rules underlining their independent status and, in general, providing for appeals to the High Court on points of law from tribunals of last resort.

The functioning of the Administrative Tribunals in the United Kingdom, France and other countries has firmly established that their existence is of great significance in the administration of justice in a welfare State. It has come to be realized that Tribunals can decide the matters with greater expediency and in a more equi-



table manner because a Tribunal is constituted with persons having specialized knowledge in the subject. The Tribunals are not bound by the technical rule of evidence. Their task is mainly to find out material facts by appropriate means. The Tribunals are permitted even to adopt inquisitorial procedures and use their own experience in arriving at a particular decision. In a number of cases they are entitled to take into consideration the broad features of public policy. The only significant limitation over the exercise of powers by the Tribunal is to act in accordance with the principles of natural justice. In fact the rule of *Audialterm-Partem* has come to be recognized as a basic feature of the democratic set-up of all the countries which are proclaimed to be governed by the rule of law.

#### INDIAN PERSPECTIVE

Our country which has adopted a federal system of Government has also adopted the Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence and the concept of rule of law prevalent in the United Kingdom. Our Constitution makers were influenced mainly by the British, American, Australian and Irish Constitutions. The legislative powers have been constitutionally distributed between the Centre and the States. The Parliament and the State Legislatures have been conferred with specific powers under List 1 and List 2 of Schedule VII to the Constitution. List 3 (also known as Concurrent List) contains those items on which both the Parliament and the State Legislatures have powers to enact legislation. The vastness of the country with different legislations enacted by the former States and with the varied forms of systems of Government prevalent in the British India compelled the Constitution framers to specify the legislative domain of the Parliament and the State Legislatures.

Preamble of our Constitution as it exists today proclaims that:

**"WE, THE PEOPLE OF INDIA,** having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a (SOVEREIGN SOCIALIST SECULAR DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC) and to secure to all its citizens:

**JUSTICE,** social, economic and political;

**LIBERTY** of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship;

**EQUALITY** of status and of opportunity; and to promote among them all.

**FARTERNITY** assuring the dignity of the individual and the (unity and integrity of the Nation);

IN OUR CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY THIS twenty-sixth day of November, 1949, do HEREBY ADOPT, ENACT AND GIVE TO OURSELVES THIS CONSTITUTION."

It has been considered in a number of pronouncements of the Supreme Court that Preamble is a part of the Constitution. In the famous Keshwanand Bharti's Case it was observed by the Hon'ble Court:

"The Constitution is an organic document which must grow and it must take stock of the vast socio-economic problems, particularly of improving the lot of the common man consistent with his dignity and the unity of the nation."

"The Constitution of a nation is the outward and visible manifestation of the life of the people and it must respond to the deep pulsation for change from within. A Constitution is not an end in itself, rather a means for ordering the life of a nation. The generation of yesterday might not know the needs of today, and, 'if yesterday is not to paralyse today', it seems best to permit each generation to take care of itself."

The concept of social, economic and political justice, liberty and equality is firmly embodied in our Constitution. In the course of exercise of legislative powers the Parliament and State Legislatures have enacted a number of laws in order to protect the interest of the weaker sections of the community—Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Chapter IV of the Constitution contains the Directive Principles of State Policy. Till the 42nd Amendment of the Constitution it was considered that the Directive Principles of State Policy are subservient to the fundamental rights guaranteed to an individual. The Parliament has interjected in the matter through the 42nd Amendment to proclaim that the fundamental rights do not supersede the Directive Principles of State Policy. In order to carry out the proclaimed policy upliftment of the downtrodden and weaker sections, a number of legislations have been enacted. In addition to this a list of Acts has come into existence in the process of decentralization of powers to Local Bodies like Municipalities, Panchayats, Statutory Corporations like State Electricity Boards, Life Insurance Corporation of India, Banks, Warehousing Corporations, Road Transport Corporations. Likewise, Cooperative Laws have been enacted regulating the functions of the Cooperatives in various States. Even prior to the coming into being of the Constitution of Independent India a number of laws existed like the Payment of Wages

Act, the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Motor Vehicles Act, the Indian Boilers Act, the Indian Dock Labourers Act, which provided comprehensive machinery for adjudication of disputes and their appeals, etc. Statutory authorities came to be conferred with judicial powers to decide disputes arising out of and pertaining to these laws. These administrative authorities, though consisting of personnel belonging to the administration, were entrusted with judicial functions and, therefore, their functioning came to be classically known as quasi-judicial functions. Similarly in the revenue matters various administrative bodies were conferred with judicial powers for adjudication of disputes. Under the Motor Vehicles Act, Accident Claim Tribunal was created, of course with a person of the rank of District Judge as its presiding officer. Nonetheless the fact remains that machinery of adjudication of disputes under various laws independent of the courts of law existed prior to the Constitution.

As has been indicated above, the laws have multiplied in hundreds and thousands after the enactment of the Constitution of Independent India and though it cannot be described as a very healthy situation, nonetheless in a fast changing society where the Government has been burdened with multifarious activities this situation is a necessary evil.

It cannot be denied that so far the performance of administration of justice through ordinary courts of law has been far from satisfactory. These courts had given a very good account of themselves in the pre-independence era when demands upon their sources were very limited but after independence the entire judicial system seems to be collapsing under the weight of fresh demands unleashed by the new imperatives of political independence and development of concept of equality. As a result, the ordinary courts failed to give that quality and quantity of justice which was needed in the changed socio-economic context. In their exercise of bare legalism and pure logic coupled with the traditional lack of sympathy with the positive aims of the Government, the courts often missed the true moving spirit behind socio-economic laws. Law is not a dead horse. It has a social function to perform and, therefore, decisions based on technicality of laws have not been taken happily by the society. The delay and expenses have also aggravated the situation.

All these inadequacies of traditional adjudication compelled the creation of Tribunals. It is definitely a misnomer to call these

Tribunals as Administrative Tribunals, for, their functioning is judicial/quasi-judicial and they cannot be described as a part of the Government machinery. Of course, the tribunals and the quasi-judicial bodies have not developed on any systematic pattern till a few years ago. In the matter of appointment of personnel of the Tribunal no specific policy has been followed and this has been one of the criticisms also. In 1976 the 42nd Amendment of the Constitution brought about the drastic changes and a number of amendments having serious impact on the powers of the High Court were made. By virtue of the said amendment, scope of the High Court of Superintendence over Subordinate Courts and Tribunal was substantially curtailed. In fact the power of superintendence over the Tribunal was altogether taken away. The position has however been restored by the 44th Amendment of the Constitution. Here it is not significant to mention that even in the absence of superintendence under Article 227 of the Constitution would not have made much difference as the High Court still retains wide powers of issuing writs under Article 226. It is now settled proposition that a writ can be issued even against an individual when he is exercising statutory power or discharging statutory obligation (*A.I.R. 1976 S.C. 425 Rohtas Industries' case*).

One of the constitutional provisions contained in Articles 14 and 16 of the Constitution relates to service under the Union and the States. Article 309 with which we are greatly concerned reads as follows:

**"RECRUITMENT AND CONDITION OF SERVICE OF PERSONS SERVING THE UNION OR A STATE.**—Subject to the provisions of this Constitution, Acts of the appropriate Legislature may regulate the recruitment, and conditions of service of persons appointed to public services and posts in connection with the Union or of any State:

Provided that it shall be competent for the President or such person as he may direct in the case of services and posts in connection with the affairs of the Union, and for the Governor of a State or such person as he may direct in the case of services and posts in connection with the affairs of the State, to make rules regulating the recruitment and the conditions of service of persons appointed, to such services and posts until provision in that behalf is made by or under an Act of the appropriate Legislature under this Article, and any rules so made shall have effect subject to the provisions of any such Act."

The powers conferred by proviso to Article 309 of the Constitution is a plenary power of legislation and the rules made in exercise of such power stand on the same footing as an Act enacted by the Legislature of the State.

#### S.A.T. IN RAJASTHAN

In the State of Rajasthan as in other States the service conditions of the employees are being regulated till this day by virtue of the Rules framed under proviso to Article 309 of the Constitution. Unfortunately the first part of Article 309 has never been acted upon by the State Legislature. This phenomenon is uniform throughout the country. Except in the matter of All India Services, even the Parliament has not stepped in to make laws regulating the service conditions of the employees of the Central Government. The proviso has been utilized as the principal armoury of legislative powers to make rules.

In exercise of powers under the proviso, the Governor of our State has from time to time promulgated rules pertaining to the conditions of service, modes of recruitment, determination of vacancies, academic and other qualifications and detailed procedures regarding recruitment through the agency of the Public Service Commission and promotions through the Departmental Promotion Committees. Separate rules have been framed for State Services, Subordinate Services, Ministerial Services, Class IV Employees and even Work Charged Employees of certain Departments. Likewise, the general conditions regarding pay, allowances, leave, pension, retirement, and similar service conditions have come to be governed by the Rajasthan Service Rules, 1951. Service Rules have been promulgated from time to time for regulating the fixation of pay. These rules began with the induction of the Rajasthan Civil Services (Unified Pay Scales) Rules, 1950, and ended up today with the Rajasthan Civil Services (Revised New Pay Scales) Rules, 1976. In between the Rajasthan Civil Services (Rationalization of Pay Scales) Rules, 1956, the Revised Pay Scales Rules, 1961, the Amended Revised Pay Scales Rules of 1966 and the New Pay Scales Rules of 1966 have been framed. Separate provisions have been made regarding the Travelling Allowance, House Rent, etc. The result is that a plethora of rules have come into existence. In addition to this there has been a growing tendency of amending the rules to suit a particular situation or to meet a particular exigency. If the laws had been enacted by

the State Legislature such a situation would not have developed. Be that as it may, the fact remains that amendments have been multiplying and their rate has accelerated in the recent few years.

This complicated jungle of rules has given rise to multifarious grievances of the employees relating to various service conditions in the matters of direct recruitment, promotion, seniority, confirmation, leave, pension, gratuity, retirement, allowances, fixation, etc., etc. The recent experience in the Rajasthan Civil Services Appellate Tribunal shows that existence of the variety of Rules in each particular service and misapplication thereof has led to a very sickening situation.

### OBJECTIVES

Our State has been one of the three States which have taken a lead in the establishment of a separate Tribunal for adjudication of disputes pertaining to the service conditions of the employees of the State. The Tribunal has come into existence under the Rajasthan Civil Services (Service Matters) Appellate Tribunal Act, 1976. The statement of objects and reasons given out at the time of introduction of the Bill strongly underlines the necessity and importance of the creation of the Tribunal:

“The proposal to constitute Administrative Tribunals to decide service matters was under consideration of the State Government for a long time. Service matters are broadly of two types: one type relating to disciplinary proceedings and the other relating to the rules of recruitment and other conditions of service. So far as the disciplinary matters are concerned, the Classification, Control and Appeal Rules make provisions for Departmental Appeal, or Review. As regards the other service matters, the present practice is only of making a representation to the Government. In both cases, an aggrieved Government servant can approach the Civil Courts by way of suits and the High Court or Supreme Court by means of writ petitions. The ordinary Civil Courts take a considerable time in deciding the service matters which is expensive and burdensome to both the Government servants and the Government. The suggestion to establish Administrative Tribunals has been from time to time considered by the Law Commission as well as by other eminent authorities.

“In view of the need for satisfactory and early final decision and to stop a flood of litigation in the Civil Courts, the State Government

has decided to constitute Administrative Tribunals to decide appeals from the order of Competent Authority and to bar the jurisdiction of the Civil Courts in service matters. These Tribunals would provide an independent forum for decision in service matters and would be more economical both to the Government servant and the Government. It will also lessen the burden of judicial courts and enable them to concentrate on other judicial matters."

The Act has come into existence after a long chain of discussions within the legislature and outside by various persons including politicians, lawyers, jurists and others. The Bill was piloted in the Assembly in 1973. The Bill was then sent to the Select Committee and after its report the Act of 1976 came into existence. The main object of the Act is to provide a machinery for expeditious and equitable adjudication of the disputes between Government servants *inter se* and the Government servant and the Government pertaining to the service conditions of the employee. The experience of the litigation in Civil Courts had created a very unhealthy situation for the Government servants and the Government both. The High Court has limited jurisdiction under Article 226 and a voluminous litigation was going on in the Civil Courts which are already saddled with other divergent nature of cases. The special knowledge in the field of service matters obviously cannot be available in all Civil Courts. Then the formalities of procedures and technicalities of laws add fuel to the fire. The long delay not only causes multifarious complications in the functions of the Government, the expensiveness of it was another important consideration which led to the enactment of the Act of 1976.

#### MAIN FEATURES/PROVISIONS OF THE ACT AND RULES

The main features of the Act of the Tribunal could be in brief stated as under:

The jurisdiction of the Tribunal has been specified in the Act in Section 2(f) read with Section 4. The term "Government servant" has been defined in Section 2(c) and the term "service matter" in clause (f) of Section 2.

By virtue of Section 3 it has come to be provided that the Tribunal shall consist of a Chairman who has to be an officer in the super time-scale of Indian Administrative Service and at least two other officers, one of whom shall be a member of the Rajasthan Higher

Judicial Service. The term of the Chairman and the members shall be ordinarily three years with the power left with the Governor to recall the Chairman or any member before the expiry of the three years. Of course for that special reasons have to be given.

Section 4 clothes the Tribunal with the power to confirm or reverse the orders passed by any officer or authority on any service matter or matters affecting a Government servant in his personal capacity. The Tribunal has also power to remand the matter for fresh decision with suitable directions.

The quorum of the Tribunal has been prescribed in Section 5. The decision is to be of the majority of members present in hearing. In case of difference of opinion equally divided, the matter has to be referred to the third member and then again the opinion of majority is to be the final decision.

Under Section 6 the Tribunal has been conferred with powers of civil court in the specified matters of:

- (a) summoning and enforcing the attendance of any person;
- (b) requiring the discovery and production of any documents;
- and
- (c) issuing commission for the examination of witnesses or documents.

Sub-section (2) of Section 6 gives more powers to the Tribunal to examine on oath any person supposed to be acquainted with the matter under probe or any fact relevant thereto. Under sub-section (3) of Section 6 the proceedings before the Tribunal shall be deemed to be a judicial proceeding within the meaning of Section 193 of the Indian Penal Code, and under sub-section (4) the Tribunal has been treated to be a Civil Court for the purpose of Sections 345 and 346 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973, and the Contempt of Courts Act, 1971.

By virtue of Section 7 the aggrieved person can be represented through his representative or an Advocate.

Section 8 attaches finality to the decision of the Tribunal.

A period of limitation has been prescribed in Section 9, which is 60 days from the date of the Order. However, the proviso gives general discretion to the Tribunal to admit an appeal after the limitation of sufficient cause is given.

By virtue of Section 10 the jurisdiction of the Civil Court has been excluded with the exception of pending proceedings in any Civil Court as on the date the Act of 1976 came into force, *i.e.*, July 1, 1976.



In order to effectuate the provisions of the Act of 1976, the State Government has framed the Rajasthan Civil Services (Service Matters) Appellate Tribunal Rules, 1976. Apart from other things, the Rules make a provision as to how the Bench is constituted, where the Bench should sit and the nomination of the third member other than the Chairman and the judicial member. Detailed procedure has been prescribed regarding filing of the Memorandum of Appeal, its security, followed by the procedure for admission of the Appeal and notices to the parties. Provision has also been made for discovery and production of documents, summoning of witnesses and payment of their expenses. The Rules also make a provision for proceeding *ex parte* in cases where the parties do not appear, dismissal of case in default and restoration.

A total conspectus of the scheme of the Act of 1976 and the rules framed under Section 12 clearly indicates an awareness on the part of the legislature and the State Government to eliminate all possibilities of delay in the disposal of the cases. While making a total deviation in the form and procedure adopted by the ordinary Civil Courts the Act has retained the most sacrosanct principle embodied in the concept of rule of law that no man should be condemned unheard. Another significant feature of the creation of the Tribunal is that while expediency has been one of the important ingredients, it has not been allowed to erode the basic canons of justice. The paramount consideration of imparting equitable justice has been retained. Thus a balance has been struck between the two maxims; one being "delay defeats justice" and the other "arbitrariness and expediency are antithesis of a just decision." The Tribunal has also been clothed with inquisitorial powers. The result is that while the burden of ordinary courts of law has been avoided, the basic powers of the Civil Courts, leading to an appropriate decision, have been kept intact.

#### ANALYSIS OF THE WORKING OF THE TRIBUNAL

The functioning of the Services Appellate Tribunal for last more than two years has proved the righteousness of its creation and existence. To a large extent the Tribunal has been able to attain the objectives set out in the Act of 1976.

Since the Services Appellate Tribunal was absolutely a new creation, large scale publicity was given to make the employees aware

of the powers and procedures to be followed in filing of the appeals. Publications in the newspapers were made and pressnotes were issued. Circulars were sent to all Heads of Department with the directions to make the employees aware of the procedure to be followed by the Tribunal. As it has now turned out to be a fact, a large number of employees have filed appeals on their own unsupported by lawyers. By now the Government servants have fully become aware of the procedures followed by the Tribunal from the point of filing of the appeals to the point of its disposal.

It is a matter of statistical interest that in the first year of the Tribunal's creation as many as 1,857 appeals were submitted to the Tribunal. Some were defective, a few others were filed in those matters in which the Tribunal does not have jurisdiction. However, overall disposal of the cases shows that about 40 to 42 appeals were decided each month. Initially it took some time before the matter could be placed before the Tribunal for hearing and about three to four months' time was taken in the final hearing of the appeal but with the passage of time the efficiency increased rapidly and the span of total time taken from the time of filing of appeal to its disposal came to be reduced to two months in majority of cases. The Government on its part, in the first instance, appointed a person of the rank of Assistant Secretary to act as authorized representative and a panel of lawyers was prepared and the cases were entrusted to the members of the panel according to their turn. However, this created a number of complications and also was one of the factors for initial delay in the disposal of the appeal. There was no cohesion in the working of the various authorities of the Government resulting in delay in the filing of the returns. Later on, a person of the rank of Deputy Government Advocate came to be appointed to conduct the cases on behalf of the Government. This definitely helped to improve the situation.

Among the number of cases which were filed before the Tribunal, the major chunk in the first year was in the realm of compulsory retirements. Employees who were retired during 1975-76 approached the Tribunal. As many as 400 appeals were filed in the matter of compulsory retirement. The next category was in the matter of seniority, promotion and confirmation allowed by fixation of pay, allowances and pensions, reversions, retrenchment and termination of services, etc. Some appeals were also filed in the matter of punishment under the Rajasthan Civil Services (Classification, Control and Appeal) Rules, 1958.

In the second year of the Tribunal's age commencing from July 1, 1977, to June 30, 1978, the total number of appeals filed was 726. It is matter of pride that some of the appeals could be disposed of even within a period of one month.

#### IMPORTANT DECISIONS

At the very initial stage two important questions were raised before the Tribunal, one being regarding the jurisdiction of the Tribunal in the service matters pertaining to the period anterior to July 1, 1976, where the employees had filed appeals within a period of sixty days of the creation of the Appeal. It was considered that since the Act of 1976 was extinguishing a remedy available under ordinary law, a beneficent construction of the statute will have to be made.

In the second matter, by a majority consisting of Shri P.K.B. Kurup, the Chairman, and Shri S.N. Deedwania, then Judicial Member, it was held that the matters relating to compulsory retirement were recovered by the provision of Section 2 (f) (v). The majority of the members held that these matters were covered by the phrase "other service conditions to the disadvantage of a Government servant". It was held that where the compulsory retirement was arbitrary, mala fide, based on extraneous considerations and where the provisions of the circulars were breached, the Tribunal had jurisdiction to interfere. The State Government filed a writ petition in the High Court against the decision of the Tribunal on a preliminary question in the compulsory retirement cases. However, the writ petition of the State of Rajasthan v. Dr. Ganpat Singh Bhandari reported in S.L.R. (1979, p. 273) was dismissed by Hon'ble Justice G.M. Lodha as well as the Special Appeal filed by the State of Rajasthan has also been dismissed.

Apart from these, another important decision of the Tribunal was to entertain appeals in the matter of violation of administrative circulars issued by the Government. The Tribunal has taken a decision of far-reaching consequences. It has held that the Government and its officers were bound by the administrative circulars and executive instructions issued by the Government itself and a violation of it gives rise to a cause of action to the aggrieved employee. This view has been firmly demonstrated in the matters of urgent temporary/*ad hoc* promotions and compulsory retirement as also in recording A.C.R.s or A.P.A.s where the Tribunal has taken a firm view

that the circulars issued by the Government, laying down guidelines to be followed by the authorities in exercising their powers under the Rules, are of binding character.

In the matter of interim matters the Tribunal has taken a view that where *prima facie* a very strong case has been made out interim order may be passed. These powers have been exercised particularly in the matter of recoveries and reversion which could cause imminent injury to the employee. In the matters of promotions and seniority the Tribunal has, by and large, been of the view that it would be unjust to issue interim order when the matter itself can be decided expeditiously. Of course, in certain matters directions have been issued by way of interim orders to consider the case of aggrieved Government servant in the matter of promotion or to keep one post vacant for him. This view has been taken to strike a balance between the two conflicting interests.

The Tribunal has gone to the extent of giving mandatory order in case where circumstances so required. Only recently in the matter of Shri Ram Babu Gupta, Superintending Engineer (Mechanical) P.W.D. & B.R., the Tribunal has considered the power to grant interim injunction and passed order on September 28, 1979. This matter was taken before the Hon'ble High Court by way of writ petition and the challenge was thrown to the order of the Tribunal. However, the Hon'ble High Court in its Judgment dated October 26, 1979, in S.B. Civil Writ Petition No. 925/1979, A.S. Agrawal v. State of Rajasthan and others upheld the Tribunal's power to pass such an order. Yet another important decision of the Tribunal is in the matter of exercising power to order direct promotion in a matter of seniority-cum-merit instead of directing reconsideration. The Tribunal has held that in suitable cases where full material has been placed before it, it has ample power to issue an appropriate direction under Section 4. The High Court has upheld the decision of the Tribunal while dismissing the writ petition filed by the State Government.

#### ADVANTAGES

Within this short span of two years and a half the existence and the functioning of the Tribunal has proved a boon to the employees. This can be illustrated from the following examples:

(1) *Cost of Litigation Reduced.* The Government servant and the Government both have been relieved of the huge expenses

involved in ordinary litigation. In the ordinary civil courts an employee was required to pay court fees in the first instance, then proceed fee for sending notices to the parties. He had to incur expenses in the summoning of witnesses. Each and every application had to be submitted with specified court fees. This used to be quite burdensome. In the matters of arrears of salary, recovery and pensions the burden of court fees was extreme. The result was that ordinarily employees belonging to Class III and Class IV service could not even dare to approach the court of law for the redress of their grievance. The lawyer's fee was another expenditure adding to the burden of the employee. All this has been done away with in the Tribunal. No court fee is to be paid either for the filing of the Appeal, or by way of expenses for summons or applications. The Act itself provides representation through a representative or an Advocate. This has encouraged poor Government servants to seek their remedies before the Tribunal.

(2) *Delays in Decision of the Cases Reduced:* It has been a very well-established phenomenon that litigation in ordinary courts of law is nothing short of luxury; huge expenses involved and inordinate delay, caused by the procedural technicalities and heavy burden of work have a frustrating effect on the litigant. In the matters of Government employees, pertaining to their service conditions, the long delays in decision seriously affect either side. Intervening factors considerably affect the entire working of the Government. In the ordinary courts it took six to ten years before a case pertaining to seniority, promotion, confirmation could be decided. In the matter of recovery itself, an illustrative is the decision of the case Rajasthan High Court reported in 1973 *RLW* (p. 95) (S.B. Civil Second Appeal No. 488 of 1976 decided on December 5, 1977, *State of Rajasthan v. Khem Chand*). The suit was filed somewhere in 1963 and ultimate decision was given in 1973. Almost 10 years' time was spent in the final decision of the matter. Examples can be multiplied for showing cases taking 15 to 20 years in final decision. This definitely had a demoralizing effect upon the employee who was more concerned with his own litigation than the Government work. The short time within which the appeal can be decided by the Tribunal has greatly relieved either side of the vexatious litigation. In fact, it has come as a boon to the Government and the Government servants. Either side knows its fate in a short period and the sword of uncertainty does not hang over them. This can definitely be considered to be a matter of pride for the Tribunal.

(3) *Hierarchy of Courts—Finality of the Orders of the Tribunal:* The Code of Civil Procedure makes a provision for two appeals ordinarily. In between there are provisions of Miscellaneous Appeal and Revisions. Thus the Government servant and the Government had to take recourse to remedy in one court after another. Whichever side was aggrieved by one decision used to knock at the doors of the higher court. However, so far as the Tribunal is concerned it has finality attached to its orders. Of course, the order can be subject to jurisdiction of the High Court under Article 226 of the Constitution.

However, there is no doubt that the finality attached to the order of the Tribunal has its overall impact, and the experience has shown that in 80 to 90 per cent of the cases the litigation comes to an end at the stage of the Tribunal itself, to the satisfaction of both parties.

It can, therefore, safely be said that the Tribunal has delivered goods and has proved beyond any shadow of doubt that justice has become cheap and expeditious before a Tribunal than in a Civil Court. This is in real sense imparting justice to the common man and poor which is one of the goals set out by the Constitution.

## 21

# Administrative Reforms in Rajasthan Secretariat

B. L. Panagaryia

T H E R E is a widespread belief that it is just not possible to attain the same degree of efficiency and economy in the administration of public affairs as can be secured in the conduct of many efficiently managed private undertakings. Today India is an independent country wedded to democracy, socialism and orderly progress. The political hierarchy of Government, upon whom the ultimate responsibility of running the Government rests, has to account for the inefficiency, delays and waste in the administration to the people and their representatives in the legislature. It is, therefore, imperative that a system is evolved which could meet the challenge of the present age.

Since India achieved independence, the Government of India as well as the State Governments have been quite alive to the need for efficient administration. The Governments have appointed Commissions, Committees and Experts from time to time to examine the structure of administration and to suggest measures to meet the present-day needs of the developing economy of the country.

The State of Rajasthan was formed some thirty years back with the merger of 21 princely States. In spite of its so-called backwardness, the young State did pioneering work in various spheres. The fact that Rajasthan was the first State to introduce Panchayati Raj in the country is very well known. Few people, however, know that Rajasthan had also done pioneering work in the matter of introducing various reforms in administration.

During the short span of life of the State Civil Secretariat there have been quite a few attempts at reorganizing its procedures and methods of working. The first major review was undertaken by G. Swaminathan, of the Ministry of States, Government of India, in October 1951. Swaminathan made a number of recommendations regarding norms, method of working and the strength of the Secre-

tariat. These recommendations were more or less implemented. In November, 1954, a Committee was set up under the Chairmanship of S.D. Ujwal, the then Secretary to Government, Home Department, "to examine the mechanics of the Secretariat work, delegation of powers and method of disposal and to make recommendations to the Government to effect concrete improvement in the Secretariat work." As a result of the recommendations of this Committee the functions of the Appointments Department were decentralized to a considerable extent. The other Administrative (that is Secretariat) Departments were reconstituted. The levels of processing and consideration of cases were reduced to some extent. More powers were delegated to the Heads of Field Departments and the Administrative Departments and an Organization and Method section was established as a nucleus for constant review of the administrative system and procedure in the Government.

Although the changes introduced as a result of recommendations of Swaminathan and the Ujwal Committees were important in themselves, they did not go far enough to cut red-tapism and to meet the requirements of the developing economy of the State. It fell to the lot of B. Mehta, the then Chief Secretary to Government, to take courage in both hands and introduce what is popularly known as Cell System in the Secretariat, as an experimental measure in the year 1960. It would be worthwhile here to explain in brief the working of the Cell System. Under this system an Administrative Department is divided into a number of Cells according to the requirements of the Department. A Cell is under the charge of a Cell Officer who can be either an Assistant Secretary or a Deputy Secretary or even a Secretary, according to the importance of the work transacted in a particular Cell. The Cell normally consists of a Diarist-cum-Despatcher, a Reference Assistant, a Stenographer and the Cell Officer. All *dak* received in the Cell is immediately registered by the Diarist and passed on then and there to the Reference Assistant who connects papers with the relevant files and puts up all such files before the Cell Officer without any noting or draft reply, order, etc. The Cell Officer dictates and issues necessary orders, if he himself is empowered to dispose of the case. If he is not competent to dispose of the case, he writes or dictates a note and also the draft order or letter and submits the file to the Secretary or the Minister for orders as provided in the Standing Orders under the Rules of Business.



It must be admitted that the Cell system was not entirely an innovation of the Rajasthan Government, although they were the first to adopt and extend it to a large area in the State Secretariat. The Government of India introduced a similar system in the Ministry of Works and Housing as an experimental measure as far back as 1955. They called it as "Officer Oriented System". The Ministry of External Affairs, Government of India, where a similar measure was introduced a few years later, named it as "Attache System". The Administrative Reforms Commission appointed by the Government of Punjab has called it "Action Oriented System". The "Desk-Officer System" recommended by the Administrative Reforms Commission of the Government of India headed by Morarji Desai is practically the same as the Cell System introduced by the Rajasthan Government.

The Rajasthan Government Cell system was first introduced in the then Appointments Department (now known as Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms) and the Finance Department in July, 1960. Emboldened with the results achieved in these two departments within a few months, the State Government extended this new measure to a number of other administrative departments. The Rajasthan Administrative Reforms Committee, headed by H.C. Mathur, was highly impressed with the working of the system and came to the conclusion that the only solution to cut delays and effect efficiency in administration was to extend the Cell System to practically every branch of administration.

The introduction of the Cell System brought about a psychological change in the attitude of those entrusted with the working of the Cells. The traditional approach to men and matters gave place to hold and liberal thinking. The old habit of putting off decisions as long as possible and raising queries, necessary or not, came almost to an end as a positive attitude to finalize matters had to be adopted. This was not due to any sudden realization by them of their responsibility as public servants but due to the compulsions of the working of the system itself, which involved examination of all papers not at the level of the ministerial hierarchy but by the Cell Officers themselves who could not avoid coming to conclusions. If an Officer, competent to finally dispose of case under the Standing Orders, submitted it to a higher authority he was taken to task. The system not only cut delays to a considerable extent but also led the Cell Officers to realize that safety lay in finalizing matters rather

than in prolonging them. There were more and more delegation of powers under Standing Orders to the Cell Officers as the time passed on. This naturally helped develop in the Cell Officers the desire as well as capacity to accept and use the delegated responsibility effectively.

The Rajasthan Secretariat Reorganization Committee headed by Mohan Mukerji went into details of the working of the Cell system in 1969-70 and came to the following conclusions:

1. The Cell has the disadvantage of having no benefit of personal memory. Newly posted Cell Officers find it difficult to deal with old cases without the help of office notes.

2. The work is frequently interrupted and arrears accumulate in the cells in the absence of the Cell Officer or the Stenographer or even the Reference Assistant on account of tours, meetings, or leave.

3. Quite a large number of officers at the decision-making level in the Secretariat belong to the IAS, RAS and RACS and hence they are posted on tenure basis. Though many of them remain on one post for two or three years, yet sudden transfers do take place.

4. With the reduction or elimination of office notes, consistency and continuity in the work suffer and respect for precedents is gone. This results in contrary and inconsistent decisions.

5. The Cell System is eminently suited to those Secretariat Departments where most of the work handled is of "Service" variety, i.e., decision is required on matters where initial examination had already been done in Administrative Departments. The Cell System could continue in Finance (Expenditure), Planning and Legal Affairs Departments and in some portion of Personnel Department.

There is no doubt that an officer newly posted in a Cell without adequate knowledge of relevant laws, rules and regulations will take time to be a competent Cell Officer. Besides, the Cell Officer should be of above average ability as suggested by the Administrative Reforms Committee. The success of every system depends on the leader of the team and it is all the more so in the case of Cell System. The administration has, therefore, to be extra careful in selecting officers for heading the Cells.

It is also true that in the Cell System the work is interrupted frequently whenever a member the Cell is absent. This deficiency could, however, be made up at the level of the supporting staff by making foolproof leave reserve arrangements in each Cell. In respect of Cell Officer, there can be "Link Officer" within the same Administrative Department.

It is one of the important ingredients of the Cell System that Cell Officers are not frequently transferred; first, because suitable officers are not easily available for manning the Cells and secondly, the longer an officer has experience of working in a Cell, the better would be the results. Having selected an officer for manning a Cell, he could not ordinarily be transferred for at least a period of five years. If a Cell Officer is due for promotion in the meanwhile, it would be appropriate to upgrade his post rather than transfer him to a new charge.

It cannot be denied that there is less concern for precedents in the Cell System. This is natural, as the papers come up for examination straightaway to the officer concerned and not with the noting of an Assistant who is supposed to keep record of such precedents in the Conventional Section system with Dealing Assistants, helped by Upper and Lower Division Clerks. As we know, the search for precedents may take months with the result that the feeling of urgency in the minds of the officers in the matter of transaction of business is completely gone. No tears, therefore, need be shed if departure is sometimes made from the precedent for the sake of achievement of new values in the administration.

There should be no hesitation in accepting the fact that the Cell system is eminently suited to some of the Secretariat Departments only, as pointed by the Rajasthan Secretariat Reorganization Committee. In fact, it is the Secretariat which is at the root of all evils of red-tapism. Once the Secretariat Departments start functioning as efficiently as a well-managed private undertaking, the "field" Departments will take care of themselves. All this being said and done in favour of the Cell System, it would be difficult to disagree with the conclusions arrived at by the Rajasthan Secretariat Reorganization Committee that the Cell System could not be accepted as a pattern of universal application in the State Secretariat and that although there were ingredients of speed and efficiency in the Cell system it lacked in consistency and continuity. The Conventional Section system, of course, provides consistency and continuity, but it is dilatory and cumbersome with its hierarchy of LDC, UDC, Assistant, Section Officer, Assistant or Under Secretary. The Committee, therefore, recommended adoption of the "Group System" which combines all the advantages of the Cell system as well as of the Conventional Section system without any of their disadvantages.

In the Rajasthan Secretariat the levels of officers are Secretary

(mostly of the rank of Joint Secretary of the Government of India), Special Secretary, Deputy Secretary, Assistant Secretary and Section Officer with 25-30 per cent of Deputy Secretaries and all Assistant Secretaries and Section Officers being from the Rajasthan Secretariat Service to which appointment is made only by promotion without element of selection by merit. In the group system, as evolved by the Committee, a Group is to consist of not more than four dealing hands headed by either an Assistant Secretary or a Section Officer. In addition, the group is to be provided with a Typist, a Receipt and Despatch Clerk, a Record Keeper and a leave reserve so as to make it a self-contained unit. While all important matters are to be initially examined at the level of the Group Officer himself, as in the Cell System, routine or single matters are to be processed at the clerical level in accordance with the procedure followed in the Conventional Section system.

The State Government having accepted the recommendations of the Secretariat Reorganization Committee in this regard, the Group system has now been in force in the Rajasthan Secretariat since 1971. Its success or failure is, however, yet to be evaluated.

In 1975-76 the Home Department of the Secretariat effected some modifications in the Group system, which amounted to reconstitution of the groups according to the convenience of a group handling one or more (related) subjects, and replacing the uniform staffing pattern by a more flexible pattern resulting in some groups having fewer hands. The Home Department recommended adoption of similar measures in other Departments of the Secretariat. None of them, however, adopted the scheme of the Home Department as they found the existing distribution of subjects among more or less uniformly manned groups to be satisfactory. On the other hand, the Special Schemes Organization in the Agriculture Department manned by specialized personnel mostly, adopted mainly the Cell system.

Although nobody could claim that the Cell system or, in its improved form, the Group system, is a breakthrough in the administrative arrangement in the Secretariat, it is certainly an important landmark in the history of administrative reforms in the country. The Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms of the Government of India can undertake a study of this system, in collaboration with the Rajasthan Government, and if they come to the conclusion that the system has contributed to efficiency of the State Government, they can adopt it in the Central Secretariat and advise other State Governments to follow suit.

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